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A

### COMPENDIOUS GRAMMAR

OF THE

### PRIMITIVE ENGLISH

OR

### ANGLO-SAXON LANGUAGE,

A KNOWLEDGE OF WHICH IS ESSENTIAL TO EVERY MODERN ENGLISH GRAMMARIAN WHO WOULD FULLY UNDERSTAND THE TRUE ORIGIN AND IDIOM OF HIS OWN LANGUAGE:

BEING CHIEFLY

A SELECTION OF WHAT IS MOST VALUABLE AND PRACTICAL

IN

The Clements of the Anglo-Saron Grammar,

WITH

SOME ADDITIONAL OBSERVATIONS.

### By THE REV. J. BOSWORTH, M.A. F.A.S.

HONORARY MEMBER OF THE COPENHAGEN SOCIETY FOR ANCIEST LITTLE TOF THE NORTH, AND VICAR OF LITTLE BOXWOOD, BUCKS.

le Ælppie poloe þar lýtlan boc azentas to Carrenn proposition per bestær-enært ir reo cæz þe japa boca astrot militar

I, Ælfric, would translate this little book and the Leanur magnet became that Grammar (Letter-craft) is the key which miles both the series of books.

be me apendan of Lebene on English ju hac General

Vest me in cranslate from the Latin into Exercise the book of General.

LONDON:

B MPECK AND MARSHALL

CHARLES SERVICE OFFICERS

1836.

460.

## PRINTED BY RICHARD TAYLOR, SHOE-LANE.





### TO HIS GRACE

#### RICHARD

### DUKE OF BUCKINGHAM AND CHANDOS, MARQUESS OF CHANDOS,

AND EARL TEMPLE OF STOWE, &c.

KNIGHT OF THE MOST NOBLE ORDER OF THE GARTER, &c. L.L.D. F.A.S.

A CONSTANT PATRON OF LITERATURE,
WHOSE PATRIOTIC ZEAL

FOR THE MOST ANCIENT HISTORIC RECORDS, PARTICULARLY OF THE BRITISH ISLANDS,

· HAS BEEN MANIFEST

IN THE COLLECTION AND CAREFUL PRESERVATION
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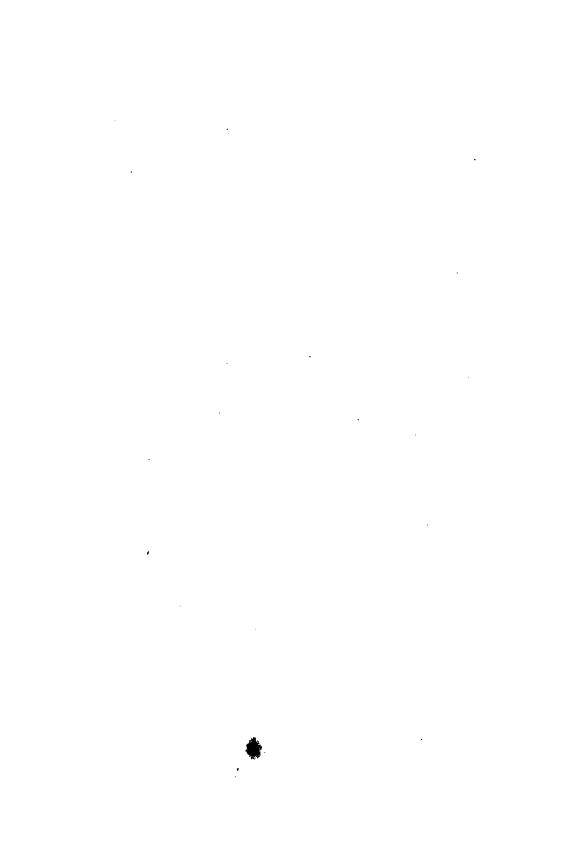
### THIS LITTLE WORK IS INSCRIBED,

AS A SMALL TRIBUTE OF THE GREATEST RESPECT FOR EXALTED RANK AND TALENTS,

BY

HIS GRACE'S MOST OBEDIENT HUMBLE SERVANT,

JOSEPH BOSWORTH.



### PREFACE.

THE Saxons were a people of Germany. Their origin and extent of power will be clearly understood by attending to the following short historical detail.

The sons of Japhet, migrating from Asia, spread themselves over Europe. The earliest tribes that reached and peopled the European coasts in the west were the Kelts\*, and the Kimmerians, Commerians, or Gomerians, from Gomer the eldest son of Japhet; such changes of names not being uncommon. It cannot now be ascertained at what time the Kimmerians passed out of Asia, but it was probably eight or nine hundred years before the Christian æra, as Homer † mentions them; and, according to Herodotus‡, they were settled in Europe long before the Scythians. The ancient Kimbri, so formidable in the earlier ages of the Roman history, were a nation of this primitive race, which, in the days of Tacitus, had almost disappeared on the Continent.

The Kelts were a branch of the Kimmerian stock that dwelt more towards the south and west than the other Kimmerian tribes. The Kelts spread themselves

<sup>\*</sup> Κελτοι.

<sup>†</sup> Odys. A. v. 14.

<sup>‡</sup> Melpom. sec. xi.

over a considerable part of Europe, and from Gaul entered into the British Isles. Though Phœnician and Carthaginian navigators probably visited Britain, the aboriginal inhabitants, the ancient Britons, were Kelts, who were conquered and driven into Wales by the Romans. The descendants of the Kelts still occupy Bretagne in France, Wales, the Highlands of Scotland, Ireland, and the Isle of Man.

The Scythian or Gothic tribes, descended from Magog\*, were the second source of European population. Like their predecessors the Kelts, these tribes came out of Asia into Europe, over the Kimmerian Bosphorus, between the Black Sea and the Sea of Azoph, but at a later period, perhaps about B.C. 680. the Gothic tribes came into Europe, part of them were settled in Armenia, the richest part of which was called Sakasina; and "they must have come into Armenia from the northern regions of Persia+" This will account for the Persian words which occur in the Gothic tongues, but particularly in Saxon. About B.C. 450, in the time of Herodotus, the Gothic tribes were on the Danube, and extended towards the south. Fifty years before the Christian æra, in Cæsar's time, they were called Germans, and had established themselves so far to the westward as to have obliged the Kelts to withdraw from the eastern banks of the Rhine. In later ages they became known by the name of Getæ or Goths.

The third and most recent stream of population which flowed into Europe, conveyed the Sclavonian or Sar-

<sup>\*</sup> Parson's Remains of Japhet, ch. iii. p. 68.

<sup>†</sup> See Turner's History of the Anglo-Saxons, vol. i. p. 99, fourth edition, 8vo.

matian nations: they are mentioned by Herodotus as being on the borders of Europe in his time; they therefore probably entered Europe about B.C. 300. These coming last, occupied the most eastern parts, as Russia, Poland, Eastern Prussia, Moravia, Bohemia, and their vicinity. From these Sclavonic tribes a third genus of European languages arose, as the Russian, Polish, Bohemian, Livonian, Lusatian, Moravian, Dalmatian, &c.

As the tribes of Keltic origin, the first source of European population, are clearly distinguished from the Gothic, and as the Sclavonic or Sarmatian tribes, the third wave of population, have never extended so far west as England, nor made any settlement among us, no further notice will be taken of them or of their language. We are most concerned with the Gothic, or second stream of European population, and the languages which have flowed from the original tongue of these tribes. The following tabular arrangement of the Gothic languages differs in some particulars from the table in " The Elements of the Anglo-Saxon Grammar:" but, as it is established upon legitimate principles, the author has no more hesitation in adopting it, than he has in specifying the source from which his information is derived. He is indebted to a letter of the indefatigable and learned Professor Rask of Copenhagen for the division of the Gothic languages into the Scandinavian and Germanic branches\*. Before he was favoured with this communication, he had not observed this important distinction

<sup>\*</sup> Den store Gotiske Folkestamme og Sprogklasse deler sig nemlig först i to store Grene den Skandinaviske og Germaniske, &c. See Preface to Angelsaksisk Sproglære, p. 32; and for the evidence in support of the distinction between the Gothic and Scandinavian branches, see Preface, p. 7, &c.

in these languages, nor noticed what Mr. Rask had previously stated in the Preface to his valuable Angelsaksisk Sproglere, that the Germanic are distinguished from the Scandinavian languages by not combining the article with the noun, and by having no passive form of verbs. The genealogy of the Gothic languages will be clearly seen from the following table:

SCYTHIAN, GOTHIC,

Or the Language introduced into Europe by the recond stream of population or by the Gothic Tribes.

Scandinavian branch.		Germanic, or Teutonic branch, very extensive in two subdivisions.		
Ancient Scandinavian, — Norræna, old Danish or Icelandic, was —	The high dialect.	The low	v dialect.	
	so-gothic, Alemanic, Fran being all six distinct lang High Dutch, or German, and some oral dialects.		ermany.	
Modern Icelandic, Eerro-dia scarcely distinguishable from Danish, & the ancient.	•			

It appears by this table, that the Saxons who occupied the north-west part of Germany sprung from the Scythian or Gothic stock. We may here observe, the terms Kimmerian and Scythian are not to be considered merely as local, but as generic appellations, each of their tribes having a peculiar distinctive denomination. Thus we have seen that one tribe of the Kimmerians, extending over part of Gaul and Britain, were called Kelts; and now we may remark that a Scythian or Gothic tribe were called Saxons. The Sakai, or Sacæ, were an ancient Scythian nation; and Sakai-suna (the sons of the Sakai), contracted into Sak-sun, seems a reasonable etymology of the word Saxon. Some of these people, indeed, were

actually called by Pliny\* Sacassani, which is but the term Sakai-suna spelt by a person unacquainted with its meaning.

The Saxons were as far to the westward as the Elbe in the days of Ptolemy; and therefore, in all likelihood, as ancient visitors of Europe as any other Gothic tribe. Their situation, between the Elbe and the Eyder in the south of Denmark, seems to indicate that they moved among the foremost columns of the vast Gothic emigration . The Saxons, when first settled on the Elbe, were an inconsiderable people, but in succeeding ages they increased in power and renown. About A.D. 240, the Saxons united with the Francs (the free people) to oppose the progress of the Romans towards the north. By this league and other means the Saxon influence was increased, till they possessed the vast tract of country embraced by the Elbe, the Sala, and the Rhine, in addition to their ancient territory from the Elbe to the Eyder. In this tract of country were several confederate nations, leagued together for mutual defence. Although the Saxon name became, on the Continent, the appellation of this confederacy of nations, yet at first it only denoted a single state. We shall only mention two of these confederate nations, the Jutes and Angles, because they are most connected with the history of Britain. The Jutes inhabited South Jutland, and the Angles the district of Anglen, both in the present duchy of Sleswick. Hengist and Horsa, who first came into Britain about A.D. 449, were Jutes, but the subsequent settlers in this Island were chiefly from the Angles; hence, when

<sup>\*</sup> Book v. ch. 11.

<sup>†</sup> Turner's History of the Anglo-Saxons, vol. i. p. 105.

the eight Saxon kingdoms were settled in Britain in A.D. 586, it formed the Anglo-Saxon Octarchy, generally, but most improperly, called the Saxon Heptarchy. They were called Anglo-Saxons, to point out their origin; Anglo-Saxon denoting that the people so called were the Angles, a nation coming from the Saxon confederacy. In subsequent times, when the Angles had been alienated from the Saxon confederacy by settling in Britain, they denominated that part of this kingdom which they inhabited Engla-lano (the land of the Angles), Angle's land, which was afterward contracted into England.

From the entrance of the Saxons into Britain in A.D. 449, they opposed the Kelts, Kimmerians, Kymri or Britons, till, on the full establishment of the Saxon Octarchy in A.D. 586, the Britons were driven into Wales. The Anglo-Saxons retained the government of this Island till 1016, when Canute, a Dane, became king of England. Canute and his two sons, Harold and Hardicanute, reigned 26 years. The Saxon line was restored in 1042, and continued till 1066, when Harold the Second was slain by William duke of Normandy, commonly called William the Conqueror. Thus the Anglo-Saxon dynasty terminated, after it had existed in England about 600 years. The Saxon power ceased when William the Conqueror ascended the throne, but not the language; for, though it was mixed with Danish and Norman, the vulgar Saxon, after rejecting or changing most of the declensions, continued to be spoken by the old inhabitants till the time of Henry the Third, A.D. 1258. What was written after this period has generally so great a resemblance to our present language, that it may evidently be called English.

After giving this brief history of the Anglo-Saxons, and showing the origin of their language, it will only be necessary to point out what has now been done to facilitate the learning of Saxon. This little work, as the title expresses, is chiefly a selection of what is most valuable and practical in the author's "Elements of the Anglo-Saxon Grammar," with such corrections and additions as a careful examination of the subject has enabled him to make. The chapter on the Dialects has been differently arranged, and that on the Formation of Words is only to be found in this Compendium.

The author has now the pleasure of returning his most grateful thanks to those literary friends who have favoured him with their assistance.

For much friendly advice and assistance the author's first acknowledgements are due to the Rev. Charles O'Conor, D.D. who most happily unites the greatest urbanity and kindness of disposition with the most useful talents and extensive erudition: while the former are justly appreciated by his friends, the latter will be acknowledged by all, when they recollect that he is the learned writer of Rerum Hibernicurum Script. Vet. and author of Bibliotheca MS. Stowensis, with other important works, published chiefly from the invaluable Manuscripts which now enrich the magnificent library of His Grace the Duke of Buckingham at Stowe.

An enlarged list of irregular verbs, and many useful observations, have been communicated by J. S. Cardale, Esq., from whom we are expecting an improved edition of King Alfred's Boethius in Anglo-Saxon, accompanied with a literal English version.

It would be ingratitude in the author not to mention his obligations to Thomas Waterhouse Kaye, Esq. Barrister at Law of the Middle Temple, and to Richard Taylor, Esq. F.L.S.: to the former, who is preparing a most useful edition of the Anglo-Saxon Laws, with an English translation, for some critical remarks on the origin of Saxon; and to the kindness of the latter, for many judicious remarks, and for carrying the work through the press with so much care.

Even in this Compendium, the author is indebted to the MSS of the late Rev. J. Webb for some few observations in orthography.

The author has now only to observe, that he has used his best endeavours to lay before the public a brief, but comprehensive Saxon Grammar. Whether he has succeeded must be left to the judgement of others who are best able to determine and less concerned in the issue. He however, as he has stated in another place, having no favourite hypothesis to support, invites liberal criticism, being assured that, by the collision of opposite opinions, new light, if not truth, is often elicited; and should this be the case, he will have cause to rejoice, whether it be produced by himself or by a more successful inquirer.

October 11th, 1825.

### COMPENDIOUS GRAMMAR

OF THE

#### PRIMITIVE ENGLISH

OB

### ANGLO-SAXON LANGUAGE.

GRAMMAR is the art of rightly expressing our thoughts by words.

Grammar is commonly divided into four parts; namely, ORTHOGRAPHY, ETYMOLOGY, SYNTAX, and PROSODY.

# PART I. ORTHOGRAPHY.

### CHAPTER I.

1. ORTHOGRAPHY describes the nature and power of letters, and the just method of spelling words.

2. The Anglo-Saxon alphabet contains twenty-three

letters: Q not being originally a Saxon letter.

3. The letters in Saxon may be pronounced as the present English: but those who wish to acquire a more correct pronunciation, will find the necessary information in the following Saxon Alphabet.

### ALPHABETS.

ANG	LO-SAXON.	) Mo	ESO-GOTHIC.	ı	RUNIC.	
Form.	Sound.	Form.	Sound.	Name.	Form.	Sound.
Жa	as in bar.	у	a.	Aar	4	α
Вb	Ь	R	<b>b</b>	Biarka	n B	b
Еc	ch as in choice.	r	g and as a before another g.	Knesol	1	c
Dъ	d	d	d	Duss	P or 1	d
Еe	C as in feint.	E	e	Stunge	n Jis I	e
Fμ	f	F	f	Fie	Y	f
Γ̈́ζ	g as in gem.	98	or j as j in jour, or y in your.	Stunge	n Kaun 🗗	g
D h	h	h	h	Hagl	*	g h
Ιı	i	IorI	i	Jis	I	į
Κk	k	K	$\boldsymbol{k}$	Kaun	Y	k
Ll	l	λ	l	Lagur	1	l
M m	m	M	m	Madur	Ψ	m
Nn	$\boldsymbol{n}$	N	n	Naud	K	n
Оo	0	R	0	Oys	A	0
Pр	<b>p</b> .	П	p	Stunge	n Birk B	p
	-	0	hw in Saxon, or sub	Kaun	Yor Y II	q
Rр	r	K	r	Ridhr	R or A	r
8 r	S	S	S	Sol	n	S
Τ̈́τ	t	T	t	Tyr	Tor 1	t
Ðþð	þ th	ψ	th		_	
Uu	ubut v before a	n	u	Ur	U	u
Pр	w	u	cw and in middle of words some-	Stunge	n Fie ₽v	or <i>W</i>
Хx	$\boldsymbol{x}$		times c.  w in the beginning,		жи	$\boldsymbol{x}$
Ϋ́у	$\boldsymbol{y}$	V	and s in the mid-	Stunge	n Ur A	y
•	-	X	Ch as in chyle.	Stunge	n Duss Þ	th
$\mathbf{Z}$ z	<b>%</b> :	Z	2.			

For ano the Saxons used these abbreviations, j and j; for par and pær they wrote j; and for odde or, and the termination lice ly, they wrote l; as l for odde or; and podt for podlice truly.

When an m was omitted, they made a short stroke over the preceding letter; as ba for bam.

#### CHAPTER II.

### The Division and Change of Letters.

5. The letters of the alphabet are divided into vowels and consonants.

6. Those letters are called vowels which can be distinctly uttered by themselves: they are a, e, 1, 0, u, y,

and p.

7. The remaining letters are called consonants, because they cannot be distinctly uttered but in union with a vowel. The consonants are subdivided into mutes, which are perfectly unutterable when alone; and semivowels, which have an imperfect sound of themselves.

The mute consonants are b, p,  $\tau$ , b, k, and the hard c and z. The semivowels are r, l, m, n, p, r, p, x, z, b, and the soft c and z. Of these semivowels, l, m, n and p are distinguished by the name of liquids, because they readily unite with the mute consonants, and flow into their sounds.

8. When two vowels are so placed as to be pronounced by a single impulse of the voice, they make a diphthong: their distribution into proper and improper is of modern date; each of the diphthongal letters being originally sounded in pronouncing the words which contained them. If three vowels come together, they form a triphthong.

9. In studying the Anglo-Saxon tongue, it is of great consequence to remark, that the inevitable changes introduced by the lapse of time, the variety of Anglo-Saxon writers, and their little acquaintance with each other, have occasioned many irregularities in the language.

10. The principal irregularity consists in this: The Anglo-Saxon writers often confounded some letters, and

used them indifferently for each other. This is the case to some extent with the vowels; and even the consonants are often treated in the same manner.

This observation will be fully exemplified in the following remarks on the transposition and substitution of the different letters.

## Remarks on the Change of the Consonants required for derivation and declension.

- 11. B, F, or U, are often interchanged; as beben, beron, a beaver. Iriz, iuez ivy. Oben, oren, ouen, over.
- 12. L often interchanges with L, K and Q; as boncer, bonzer thoughts. Lyo, kyo, kindred. Epen, quen, a queen, wife.

13. D and T are often used indiscriminately for each other, and D is changed into o especially in verbs; as

reodan to boil or seeth; roden boiled.

14. It is often changed into h and p; as dahum for dayum with days. It is often added to words that end with 1, as hig for hi they; and omitted in those words which end in 13; as day for days or day, dry.

15. It is sometimes changed into z; as paz for pah

he grew or throve, from bean to grow.

- 16. At the end of monosyllables, L and N are often written double or single without any distinction; but this reduplication ceases when words are lengthened, and a consonant follows; as pell or pel well; ealle or al all (omnis), ealne all (omnem).
- 17. The Saxon p and p, both in manuscripts and coins, are easily mistaken for each other; and sometimes, even in printed books, great care is necessary to distinguish these letters.
- 18. S and Z are merely variations of the same original letter. The Z is only the S hard.
- 19. X is sometimes supplied by cr; as neoneren for neonxen quiet.

### Remarks on the Vowels and Diphthongs.

20. If the consonants—those natural sinews of words and language—suffer such changes, it may safely be presumed that those flexible and yielding symbols, the vowels, would be exposed to still greater confusion.

21. The vowel A and its diphthongs thus interchange:

A and fC: as ac, fE: as ac, fE: an oak; acep, fE: acep, fE: habban to have, ic habbe fE have; fE: fE: an one, fE: and fE: an one, fE: fE

fe and CA: as æ, ea water; æc, eac eternal.

£ and Œ: as æzhpen, æzhpen every where.

Æ and Y: as ælc, ylc each one.

22. E is often added to the end of Anglo-Saxon words where it does not naturally belong, and it is as often rejected where it does.

Eo is changed into y and e, and ea into e, but more usually into y. Seolr, relp, rylp self; ryllan, rellan to give, sell; ease, ese easily; and cearten, certen a castle.

Neah near, nehrt nearest; ealo old, re ylona the elder.

23. I is interchanged with e and y; as 17lano, e7lano, y7lano an island; erel, yrel, evil; 1phl1n7,

eappling, yppling a farmer.

24. O is changed into u, e and y, and eo into y; but sometimes into a, especially before n in a short or terminating syllable; as bom judgment, beman to judge; propen comfort, preprian to comfort; por a foot, per feet; box a book, bec books; rronm a storm, rrynman to storm; zolo gold, zyloen golden.

25. U is sometimes converted into y; rcnuo clothing,

rcpyban to clothe.

### PART II.

### ETYMOLOGY.

#### CHAPTER I.

1. ETYMOLOGY treats of the formation and modification of the different sorts of words; or, as they are commonly called, Parts of Speech.

Words, composed of the letters of the alphabet, are

articulate sounds used as signs of our ideas.

2. All words were originally what are now termed monosyllables; and consisted either,

1st, of a single vowel, as—a, always, ever: 2ndly, of a diphthong, as—æ, a law: or

3rdly, of a vowel or diphthong, and one, two, or more consonants united; as—ac an oak; ælc all, each. Many words ending in a semivowel are most probably of this kind: as—aol a disease, pærem fruit, byrmp reproach, aplan apple: so that all words were at first pronounced with one single impulse of the voice, or with that slight modification of it occasioned by the terminating semivowel, and which is but the recoil from that impulse. For the sake of greater expedition in communicating the thoughts, and in the inattentive rapidity of pronunciation, two, three, or more words, expressing a complete thought, or a convenient part of one thought, were often uttered so closely together, as at length, through the force of habit, to be considered as but one word:—consequently, those words which we call disyllables, trisyllables, and polysyllables, are no other than two, three, or more entire words, or fragments of words, thus condensed into one.

All words, therefore, of more than one syllable are

compounded of other words, which had a separate existence, either in the same language or in some kindred

tongue.

3. Words may be divided into the following classes: namely, Substantive of Noun, Adjective, Pronoun, Article of Definitive, Verb, Adverb, Preposition, Conjunction, and Interjection.

Under these classes all the words of the Saxon language may be arranged: though not perhaps, in every

case, with scientific precision.

1. 6.

#### CHAPTER II.

#### THE NOUN.

4. A Noun is the name of any thing we can see, touch, or conceive to exist.

Nouns are of two sorts, Proper and Common.

### Proper Nouns or Names.

5. Proper nouns are names only appropriated to individuals; as, Eczbent (the bright eye), Epelped (noble in council), &c.

### Common Nouns.

- 6. Common nouns or names are those words which denote the names of things containing many sorts or individuals.
- 7. We know man is a Common name, because it is common to all the species; and that Epelpeo is a Proper noun or name, because it is appropriated to an individual:—every individual man is called Man, but every man is not called Epelpeo.

### The Properties of Nouns.

The properties of Nouns are Number, Case, Gender, and Declension.

#### Of Number.

8. When one object only was expressed, the noun remained in its original single state, which is called the Singular Number: when two or more objects are referred to, the noun commonly undergoes a slight alteration to indicate it, and becomes the Plural Number: as

#### SINGULAR.

#### PLURAL.

Smid a smith	. Smidar smiths
Dun a mountain	. Duna mountains
Viln a girl	. Pılna <i>girls</i>
Steoppa a star	
Ca water	. Ean waters
Eag an eye	. Eagan eyes
Fneo a freeman	
Pincen winter	. Pinche or Pincha winters.

Nouns in Saxon form their plurals according to the inflection of the declension to which they belong; but some nouns are written the same in both numbers: as, beapn and calo a child or children; pay wife or wives, &c. This happens most frequently in nouns designating things without life; as, popo word or words.

The following change their final consonants in the plural.

SINGULAR.

PLURAL.

Fire a fish ..... Fixar fishes
Dire a dish ..... Dixar dishes
Ture a tusk ..... Tuxar tusks.

Some names of nations are found in the plural without the singular: as Dene the Danes; Romane the Romans; Engle the Angles, &c. They are declined like the plural of the third declension. These change the vowel in forming the plural:

SING.	PLUR.	SING.	PLUR.
Boc a book.	. Bec books	Eu a cow	Eģ cows
For a foot .	. Fet feet	Too a )	Teð & Toþar
Man a man.	. Men <i>men</i>	tooth }	`{ teeth '
Lur a louse .	. Lỳŗ <i>lice</i>	Lor a goo	se Ler geese.
Mur a mouse.	. Myr mice	, ,	, 0

These form their plural thus:

SING.	PLUR.
Lealr a calf	Lealppu <i>calves</i>
Æz an egg	
Beo a bee	

#### OF THE CASES.

9. A case is a change in the termination of a noun, adjective, and pronoun, to express their relation to the words with which they are connected in the sentence.

In Anglo-Saxon there are four cases: the Nominative,

Genitive, Dative or Ablative, and Accusative.

- 10. The Nominative, or naming case, is that which primarily designates the name of any thing; as rmid a smith.
- 11. When one thing is represented as being the source, origin, author, or cause of another, its name has a termination added to it, called the Genitive Case; as Dyrer manner runu this man's son; Iroder lure God's love, or the love of God. Here God is evidently the source, origin, &c. of love.
- 12. "The object to which an action tends, and from a regard to which it commences (the relation to which is, in our language, denoted by the preposition to or for), is said to be in the Dative Case: but as the end of an action is intimately connected with the instrument by which it is effected, the termination expressive of the former is used also to express the latter, and consequently" in

Anglo-Saxon "the Ablative differs not from the Dative; but one and the same termination serves for both\*:" as Dirum rmide (Ælf. Gr.) To this workman; Fnam birum rmide From this workman or smith; Fnam birum laneope ic zehynde pirdom (Ælf. Gr.) I heard wisdom from this master; Dirum cildum ic benize (Ælf. Gr.) I assist these children.

13. A word on which an action terminates, or a word that is the object of an action or relation, is said to be in the Accusative Case: as Dirne mannic lurize This man I love, or I love this man; Ic undergreng rech I received money.

### OF GENDER.

14. Gender is the distinction of nouns with regard to sex. In this respect nouns are either males, or females, or neither: and thus are of the masculine, feminine, or neuter gender.

In Anglo-Saxon, as in Latin and other inflected languages, there are two ways of discovering the gender of nouns:—1st, by the Signification, and 2dly, by the Ter-

mination.

### 1st, By the Signification.

15. The gender of things with life is known by the

signification.

- 16. The masculine gender, which denotes animals of the male kind, is commonly expressed by adding to a noun the syllable -ep or -epe, which is perhaps a contraction of the word pep or pepe, a man; but all the names of males, whatever be the termination, are masculine.
- 17. The feminine gender, denoting animals of the female kind, is expressed by adding to nouns the syllable

<sup>\*</sup> See Jones's Greek Grammar, part iii.

-erthe, -irthe, or yrthe, which is either a complete word or the fragment of a word, once probably signifying woman: as Læpe instruction, Læpyrthe an instruction-woman, an instructress.

NEUTER NOUNS.	MASCULINE.	FEMININE.
Sanz a song	Sanzepe a song-man, a singer	Sanzifthe a song-wo- man, a songstress.
Swd seed	Sædene a seed-man, a sower	Sædýstpe a female sower.

Whatever the final syllable may be, all nouns denoting females are feminine.

### 2dly, By the Termination.

18. The neuter gender signifies objects which are neither males nor females: as Loc a lock of a door.

In languages varying the termination, like the Anglo-Saxon, the masculine and feminine genders are often assigned to things without life. The only way of ascertaining the gender of such nouns is by the termination of the nominative or some other case.—Though we cannot give unerring rules to ascertain the gender of Saxon nouns, from the final syllable, the following observations may serve as general directions.

In primitive nouns, those which end in a are masculine: as re nama the name; re maza the maw or sto-

mach; re boza the bow, &c.

Nouns ending in e are feminine or neuter: as reo eonde the earth; par eane the ear; reo heonte the heart, &c.

Those which make the genitive singular to end in a, are often masculine; but those words that have the same case in e are feminine.

All nouns which make -ar in the plural are masculine. Nouns indeclinable in the plural are generally of the neuter gender.

### The following Nouns are

#### MASCULINE.

Nouns ending in

-m are masculine: as re rleom the flight.

-elf are also often masculine: as re reaccel the sting.

-reype or reipe are the same: as re ealbonreype the lordship; rneonorcipe friendship.

#### FEMININE.

Nouns ending in

-uo or o are feminine: as reo zeozuo the youth;
reo repenzo the strength; reo epeopo the truth.
-o -e are also feminine: as zecyno nature; mihe

might.

Nouns ending in

-ner or -nerre, -nyr, -nır, -yrr, -ırr, or -yrre, -ırre, &c. are feminine; as mıloheopuner mild-heartedness; reo zelicner the likeness.

-en are feminine: as reo ræzen the saying or ex-

pression; reo byphen the burthen.

-u -o are feminine: as hætu heat; reo lazu the law; reo mænizeo the multitude; lenzeo length.

#### NEUTER.

Nouns ending in

-enn are neuter: as het domenn the court of justice.

-ed are also neuter: as bæt pened the multitude.

-l are neuter: as pæt retl the seat.

Seo runna or runne the sun, is said to be feminine, and re mona the moon, masculine.

#### DECLENSION.

19. Declension is the regular arrangement of nouns, according to their terminations.

In Anglo-Saxon there are three Declensions, distinguished by the ending of the Genitive case singular.

20. The Dative case Singular is either like the Genitive, or formed from it, by only rejecting the r. The Accusative Singular is always like the Nominative, except when the Genitive ends in -an, then the Accusative case also ends in -an.

All the declensions have the Genitive plural terminating in -a; the Dative in -um or -on; and the Accusative like the Nominative.

#### THE FIRST DECLENSION.

21. The First Declension, which includes a very considerable part of Saxon nouns, is known, by making the Genitive case singular to end in -er.

#### SINGULAR.

### N. Smid a smith

G. Smid-era of a smith

D. Smid-e to, for, with, A. Smid a smith

ar in Dano-Saxon.er in Dano- and Normanno-

Nom. Fædep, Gen. Fædoper,

#### PLURAL.

Smid-arb smiths
Smid-a of smiths

to, for, with, &c. Smid-um to, for, with, &c. a smith Smid-ay smiths.

Dan.-Sax. father, is seldom declined in the Singular, but in the Plural it is regular.

Neuter nouns make the Accusative case like the Nominative of the same Number; but, in the Nominative and Accusative Plural, they sometimes end in -a, -e, -o, -u and -æ, and sometimes these cases are without any inflection, like the Nominative Singular: as, Singular and Plural, Nom. and Acc. Popo a word, Anogic understanding, Feo money. Neuter nouns make the Dative Singular to end in -a as well as -e.

Nouns ending in -o or -eoh preserve the o through all the cases, except the Genitive and Dative Plural: as, Fpeo, -eoh a freeman, and Feo money, wealth, &c.

#### THE SECOND DECLENSION.

22. The Second Declension has the Genitive case Singular ending in -an.

SINGULAR.		PLURAL.			
		a prophet			
G.	Pitez-an	of a prophet	G.	Picez-ena	of prophets
D.	Pitez-an	to, by, &c.	D.	Picez-um	to, by, &c.
A.	Pitez-an	a prophet.	Α.	Picez-an	prophets.

Proper names ending in -a are of this declension; as, Mania, Accila, &c.

#### THE THIRD DECLENSION.

23. The Third Declension is known by the Genitive case Singular ending in -e or -a, or perhaps any vowel.

### SINGULAR.

- N. Pıln a maiden
- G. Viln-e of a maiden D. Piln-e to, by, &c.
- A. Pılna a maiden.

- N. Piln-ab maidens
- G. Pıln-a of maidens
- D. Piln-um to, by, &c. A. Viln-a b maidens.
- <sup>2</sup> Feminine nouns of this declension are said to make the Acc. end in -e.
- b Also piln-e, -o, and -u.

Nouns ending in -anz, -anze, -enz, -ınz, -onz, -unze, -irr, -err, -erre, -yrre, -nere, -nerre, and -nyrre, are all feminine, and of this Declension.

So Spurton, and recorton, a sister, make in the plural number Spurtn-a, rpeortn-a, zerpeortn-a, sisters.

Sometimes there is a variation only in the cases of the Singular number; as, Sunu a son, which makes the Nom. and Acc. in -u or -a. The cases in the Plural are regular, and declined like Pilna maidens.

Lercy shoes, and Modon or Moden mother, are

mostly indeclinable.

The words  $r\approx sea$ ,  $\approx law$ , and ea water, a stream, are not declined in the Singular; but we find, especially in the Gen. of compounds,  $r\approx r$  and ear.

Eu a cow makes in the Gen. Plur. cuna of cows.

Gen. xxxii. 15.

24. Nouns which end in a single consonant, after a short vowel, often double the final letter in the Genitive case, and every other derived from it; as, Sin sin, Gen. Sinne of sin; Sib peace, Gen. Sibbe of peace. The same observation may be made of words ending in -ner, -nir, -nyr, &c.; as, Dpyner the Trinity, Dpynerre of the Trinity.

#### CHAPTER III.

### OF THE ADJECTIVE.

25. An Adjective is a word adjected or added to a noun, to express its quality, sort, or property: as Loo cilo a good child; Pir man a wise man. Here child and man are nouns or names; and the quality, sort, or property of the child and man are denoted by the Adjectives goo good, and pir wise.

Adjectives expressing the qualities of things, and not the things themselves, cannot, in strict propriety, have gender. They, however, are called masculine, feminine, or neuter as they have terminations most common in

masculine, feminine, or neuter Nouns.

### THE DECLENSION OF ANGLO-SAXON ADJECTIVES.

26. Anglo-Saxon Adjectives have variable terminations that they may correspond with their nouns. All Adjectives are declined after the following example:

#### SINGULAR.

Masc. & Neut.	Fem.	
N. Loo good bonus, -um	God-e good bona	
G. Loo-er boni	Loo-pe bonæ	
D. God-uma bono	Loo-ne bonæ	
A. God-ne b bonum	Боб-е bonam.	

#### PLURAL.

### Masc. Fem. & Neut.

N. Lod-e c good	bon $i$ , bon $a$ , bon $a$
G. Боб-ра	bonorum, -arum, -orum
D. Lod-um	bonis
А. Гоб-е	bonos, -as, -a.

<sup>&</sup>lt;sup>a</sup> gob-on <sup>c</sup> The Nom. Plur. in poetry, <sup>b</sup> In the Neut. the Acc. Sing. also ends in -a, -o, and -u. is generally gob, like the Nom.

#### THE COMPARISON OF ADJECTIVES.

27. There are only two degrees of Comparison; the Comparative and Superlative. An Adjective, in its positive or natural state, does not indicate a comparison, but merely denotes the quality, &c. of a noun: as pir man a wise man.

Nouns may possess the same qualities in different degrees; and when the quality of one thing is compared with the same quality in another, the adjective, which expresses that quality, is said to be in the Comparative degree. Here are two men both possessing the quality of wisdom; but, when compared, one has more than the other—one is wise but the other is wiser, which is the Comparative degree.

When the quality of one thing is compared with the same quality in three or more things, the adjective denoting the quality of the third thing is said to be in the Superlative degree. Here are three men who are all

wise. The second has more wisdom than the first, and therefore he is the wiser of the two; but the third has more wisdom than the other two, he is therefore the wisest, which is the Superlative degree.

28. The Comparative degree is formed by adding to the Positive any of these terminations: -en, -ene, -an, -æne, -ın, -on, -un, or -yn; and the Superlative, by adding -art, -arte, -ært, -ert, -ırt, -ort, -urt, or -yrt; as Positive pihtpire righteous; Comparative pihtpirene, more righteous; Superlative pihtpirart, -ert, -yrt,

most righteous.

29. Adjectives, in all cases and degrees of comparison, besides the common termination, sometimes admit of an emphatic -a, which increases the force of the expression: as, re ylc the same, re ylca the very same. The last vowel is often changed into -a, which has still the same emphatic effect: as Loocuno or zoocunoe divine or holy, zoocunoa very divine or holy; zelupoo beloved, zelupooa well beloved. We have also pihtpira remarkably righteous, pihtpirepa more remarkably righteous, pihtpirerca most remarkably righteous.

The emphatic -a is most frequently added to adjectives used demonstratively, or in addressing a person, as in the Greek and Roman vocative cases. Oppalo pe Engrenerica cyning Nophan-hymbna-pice, Oswald the most Christian king of Northumbria. La zoda man (Bone vir) O good man. La zoda lapeop (Διδασκαλε αγαθε, Magister bone) Good master. Matt. xix. 16.

All words terminating with the emphatic -a are declined like the second declension, excepting that the ge-

nitive plural ends in -na.

30. Some adjectives change a vowel; and others have greater irregularities in their comparison. The chief of them will be found in the following table. Some words are employed as adjectives only in their comparative and superlative degrees, being in their positive state employed as a different part of speech:—such words are here inclosed in brackets.

### Table of Irregular Comparison.

Positiva.	Comparative.	Superlative.
(Æp) ere, before	eppe (epep) before	enert, -ort, first.
Calo old	ylone older	yloert oldest.
Cati easy	eadene, edne (ed) easier	eadort easiest.
(Feop) far	pýppe (pýp) <i>further</i>	ryppert furthest.
Leong young	zynzne younger	zynzejt youngest.
Lob good	becepe (bet) better	betert best.
Deah high	hyppe higher	hyhyt highest.
Lang long	lengne (leng) longer	lengert longest.
Lyvel little	læffe (læf) less	lært least.
Mýcel (mýcle) much	mape (ma) more	mæjt most.
Neah nigh	neape (neap) nvaret	nýhyt nearest.
Sceope short	rcypepe <i>shorter</i>	rcyptert shortest.
Sepanz strong	rtpengpe stronger	strongest.
Y rel evil or bad	pypre (pypr) worse	pynnert worst.

## The following mostly form the superlative by merc, from mært most.

Positive.	COMPARATIVE.	SUPERLATIVE
(Ercep) after (Ford) forth Innepeapo(inn) inward		ærrepmeyr aftermost. rypmeyr furthermost. innemeyr innermost.
Læt (late) late	hætpe (latop) later	{ latort lætemert } latest.
Orod Middle Middle		midmejt middlemost.
Nicepeano nether	nidene (nidpop) lower	urdemeye nethermost.
Nopoepeapo (nopo) northward	(nopsop) more north-	
(6ාර්) lately	riope (riop) later	ridemert last.
Uppeano (up) upward	urene (uron) upper	yremert upmost.
Utepeand (ut) outward		yvemer outermost.

### CHAPTER IV.

#### Pronouns.

31. A Pronoun, according to the derivation of the word (pro for, nomen a noun), is a word used instead of a noun: as, "John is good, because he gets his les-

son, and remembers what is told him." Here he, his, and him are pronouns, being put instead of the noun John.

32. They may be divided into *Personal*, *Adjective*, *Definitive*, and *Relative* pronouns. The Personal and Relative pronouns are only to be considered as invariably used in a strictly pronominal sense; Adjective pronouns, according to the present imperfect division of language, are Adjectives or Pronouns, according to their use and position.

#### PERSONAL PRONOUNS.

33. Personal pronouns are such as are applied to persons, or to what is personified. There are five Personal pronouns in most languages, corresponding to the English I, thou, he, she, it, and their plurals we, ye or you, they.

Personal pronouns admit of Person and Gender as

well as Number.

34. In each Number there are three persons, who may be the object of any discourse: the first person, who speaks; the second, who is spoken to; and the third, who is spoken of; thus:

#### SINGULAR

#### PLURAL.

1st Person. Ic I
2nd Person. Du thou
3rd Person. De, heo, hic,
he, she, it.

1st Person. Pe we
2nd Person. Le ye or you
3rd Person. Di they.

To distinguish the gender of the person, for which the pronoun stands, a variation is only necessary in the third person singular, because the third person, or person spoken of, being absent, the gender could not be known, but by an alteration in the pronoun. A change is unnecessary with respect to the first and second persons; for as the individuals whom these pronouns represent,

are spoken to, they must be present, and their sex, therefore, at once evident.

### DECLENSION OF PERSONAL PRONOUNS.

# 35. The First Person is thus declined.

SINGULAR.		PLURAL.	
N. Ic G. Min D. Me A. Me <sup>a</sup>	to or by me	N. Pe or pit b G. Upe or uncep D. Up or unc c A. Up or Pit d	we * of us to or by us us.

<sup>\*</sup> mec, mek, meh, in Dan.-Sax. like the Gothic MiK me. b poc and upth in Dan.-Sax.

### 36. The Second Person is modified thus:

#### SINGULAR.

#### PLURAL.

N. Đu			ye or you
G. Din	of thee	G. Copen or incenb	of you
D. Đe	to or by thee	D. Cop or inchum c	to or by you
A. Đe*			you.

bec and beh in Dan.-Sax.
 iuep, iueppe and iuop.

<sup>\*</sup> Pit is similar to the Gothic VIT we two, and zyr to VIT you two. They are generally considered as the Saxon dual, and are thus declined.

DUAL.		DUA	L.
N. Pie G. Uncep D. Uncpum * A. Pie	to us two	N. Gyth G. Incep D. Incpum <sup>c</sup> A. Inc	you two of you two to you two you two.

The Dat. has also unc and b-For give we have more, as if from mc give. c It is also mc.

This is the only form in which there is the least appearance of a Dual in the Anglo-Saxon language. It is very questionable whether

c unge and uncpum.
d upic, upich, upig and upih in
Dan.-Sax.

c zeop and in Dan.-Sax. iuch, iuh, iuih, iuich, eopic, iopih, zeiop.

### 37. The Third Person is inflected thus:

#### SINGULAR.

Maso	. Fe	m.	Neut.
G. Dira o	ne Deoc of him Dipe oo him Dipe him Dic	to her Dim	it or that of it or that to it or that it or that.

#### PLURAL.

# Masc. Fem. and Neut.

N. Dis they G. Dipah of them

D. Dim' to, from, &c. them.

A. Dik them.

- c hio. • hỳr. • hizne.
- d hype, hiepe. f hýt. heo and hig.
- hig, hýg, hio, hia, heo, hiheom, they themselves.
- hýpa, hiopa, heopa: heopa commonly Feminine, heonum, hepe, and hep.
  - i heom.
  - k hig and heo.

# ADJECTIVE PRONOUNS.

38. Adjective pronouns are so called, because, like regular adjectives, they have no meaning till joined with a noun; as, Upe ræden, our father; hpæt yr hin nama, what is thy name?

this fragment of a dual is to be considered as the real dual number. We find Pe we and ze ye are commonly used when two are signified. Ic ropgear eop, I have given you. Gen. i. 29. Le ne æton, Ye eat not, or shall not eat. Gen. iii. 1. By pe ne zeron, That we should not eat. Gen. iii. 3. The plural is as often used as the dual: hence Cædmon, when he represents Abraham speaking to his two servants, has Regrad incir hep, Remain you here, p. 62. 1. 2. In Gen. xxii. 5, it is Androiad cop hep, Remain or abide you here. Du in Saxon is exactly like its Gothic sister  $\Psi n$  thou.

Those adjective pronouns which are derived from the personal, are only the genitive cases of the personal pronouns, taken and declined as adjectives: thus

On my, is the genitive singular of Upe our, is the genitive plural of Uncep our, is the genitive of pro.

Din thy, is the genitive singular of Copen your, is the genitive plural of Incep your, is the genitive of zyr.

When these genitive cases are put in the adjective form they will appear thus:

M. & N.	Fem.	M. & N.	Fem.
Min my	One my	Copen your	Copene your
Upe our	Upe our	Incen your	Incepe your
Uncen our		Sin his	Sine hers
Đin thine	Dine thy.	Sylp <i>self</i>	Sÿlre <i>self</i> .

Adjective pronouns for the most part are declined like common adjectives.

39. Min my is thus declined, exactly like the adjective 700 good.

#### SINGULAR.

Masc. & Neut. (meus -um.)	<i>Fem.</i> (me <i>a</i> .)	
N. Min mine or my G. Min-er of mine or my D. Min-um to or from my A. Min-ne mine or my.	Min-pe of mine or my Min-pe to or from mine Min-e mine or my.	

### PLURAL.

Masc. Fem. and Neut. (mei, meæ, mea.)

N. Min-e mine or my G. Min-pab of mine or my

D. Min-um to or from mine or my

A.  $\Omega$  in e mine or my.

b In Dan.-Sax. menna.

The neuter gender in the Acc. case generally has mm.

In the same manner is declined Din thy, and Sin his; but Din thy in Dan.-Sax. makes in the Gen. Plur. benna.

40. Une or uncep our, is thus declined \*:

#### SINGULAR.

### Masc. and Neut.

Fem.

N. Un-e \* our noster -rum Un-e our nostra

G. Un-er b of our Un-ne of our D. Un-um c to or from our

Up-pe to or from our

A. Un-ned our.

Un-e our.

### PLURAL.

# Masc. Fem. and Neut.

N. Un-e our nostri -æ -a

G. Un-na of our

D. Un-um to or from our

A. Un-e our.

 urep and urrep. b urrer and in the Neuter upe or ure.

c urrum d urre.

#### SINGULAR.

Masc. and Neut. N. Uncen our noster nostrum

G. Uncher of our

D. Uncpum b to or from our

A. Uncenne our.

For uncepum.

Fem.

Uncepe our nostra Uncepper of our Unceppe to or from our

Uncepe our.

#### PLURAL.

#### Masc. Fem. and Neut.

N. Uncpec our two nostri, æ, a

G. Unceppa of our two

D. Uncpumd to or from our two

our two. A. Unche

Contracted for unceper.

c For uncepe.

d For uncepum.

Incep, incepe, or incpe (as the Greek σφωίτερ-ος -α -ον) your, of you two, is declined like uncen (vwirep-os -a -ov) our, of us two.

<sup>\*</sup> When two were signified, the Anglo-Saxons often used uncen and incen instead of upe and eopen; they are, therefore, commonly considered as the dual number of upe, and copen; but as uncen and incep are very seldom used, even when two are spoken of, it was considered better to put them in the Notes, than to make a regular Dual Number. They are thus declined:

41. Copen or incep your, is thus declined:

#### SINGULAR.

### Masc. and Neut.

Fem.

N. Copen your vester-rum Copen-e<sup>a</sup> your vestra

G. Copen-er of your Copen-na of your

D. Copen-um to your Copen-ne to or from your

A. Copen-ne your. Copen-e your.

#### PLURAL.

### Masc. Fem. and Neut.

N. Copen-e vour vestri - a -a

G. Copen-na of your

D. Copen-umb to or from your

A. Copen-e your.

· eoppe.

b suppe in Dan. Sax.

Other pronouns ending in -ep are declined like copep your.

42. The personal pronoun of the third person has no declinable adjective pronoun, but the sense of it is always expressed by the genitive case of the primitive of the same gender and number; namely, by hip, hipa, hipe, heopa, which are called reciprocals, because they always refer to some preceding person or thing, and generally the principal noun in the sentence: as, Rachel peop hype beapn, Rachel wept (for) HER barns. Matt. ii. 18. De poblice hyp pole halgeded ppam hypa rynnum, He truly shall save His people from THEIR sins. Matt. i. 21.

If it be wished to define the reciprocal sense in hir, hipe, hipa, more accurately, the definitive word agen own is subjoined: as, Da pæpa racepda ealdon rlat hyr agen pear, Then the chief of the Priests slit his own clothing. Matt. xxvi. 65. Se be be hym rylrum rppyco. reco hyr agen puldon, He who speaketh con-

cerning himself seeketh HIS OWN glory. John vii. 18.

To hir agenne beange, To his own necessity.

By the poets this reciprocal sense of hir, hipe, &c. is sometimes expressed by rin and rine (suus -a -um) his own: as, Bpezo engla bereah eazum rinum, The ruler of the angels (God) saw with His eyes. Cæd. p. 23. 25. Pid opincen rinne, Against His Lord. Cæd. p. 7. 20. Orrloh bpoop rinne, He slew His own brother. Cæd. p. 24. 4. Azir Abpahame idere rine, Give to Abraham His own woman or wife. Cæd. p. 57. 12.

43. Sylp or rulp, rylpe or rulpe, or sometimes relp, self, is declined like the common adjective; but it is often joined with other pronouns, and then it is either

indeclinable or thus modified:

#### SINGULAR.

#### PLURAL.

N. Icrýlp I myself Perylre we ourselves G. Minrylrer of myself Uperylrna of ourselves &c. &c. &c. &c. N. Đurýlp thyself **G**erÿlre ye yourselves G. Dinrylrer of thyself Copentylpha of you your-&c. &c. &c. &c. selves N. Derylr he himself Dirylpe they themselves of himself Diparylppa of themselves G. Dirrylrer N. Deorylre she herself Dirylre they themselves G. Diperylphe of herself Deonarylpha of themselves &c. &c. &c. &c. N. Ditrýlr itself G. Dirrylrer of itself &c. &c.

Sylp is also annexed to nouns: as Petpuppylp Peter's self. Epiptyylp pange "Paten Norten" æpopt, Christ himself sang "Pater Noster" first. Elstob's Hom. St. Greg. Pref. xxxvi.

### DEFINITIVES.

44. Words which define or point out individuals or classes may be justly termed Definitives.

Se <i>the</i>	. Pir this
Eniz, æni any	. Næniz none
Enlipic, ænlipiz each one.	.Sum some
Eal felc all	
Elc-uht any thing	
Ylc, ylce same	.Spile, rpilce such
E=Xan either	Na Xan moither
Applie aught, any thing	Nopihe naught, nothing.

These and some other words are definitives; but Se the, commonly called an article, and pir this, generally denominated a demonstrative pronoun, will require the first and most particular attention.

### DECLENSION OF THE ARTICLE AND OTHER DEFINITIVES.

45. The article or definitive re, reo, pær, the, that, has three genders, and is thus declined:

#### SINGULAR.

Masc.	Fem.	Neut.	
N. Sea	Seo <sup>d</sup>	Đærh the, th	at
G. Đær	Đæne e	Đæri of the,	
D. Đam b	Đæne <sup>f</sup>		m, &c. the, that
A. Done c	Đag	Đæth the, th	
reo, bone,	beine, and bec. bein, bi, and in nd big.	° þepe.	
bæm, þan,	pen, pi, and in	on is son	netimes added to
DanSax. by a	nd piz.	þæne: as þænd	on an ed.

<sup>\*</sup> pen, pene, pene, and panne.

† re, rio, pen, peo, peo, and per.

i þir, þar.

bat.

#### PLURAL.

Masc. Fem. & Neut.

N. Da the, those

G. Dæna b of the, those

D. Dam<sup>c</sup> to or from the, those A. Da the, those.

\* In Dun.-Bax. bu, by; and in betn, bum, bon, b, and the Nor.-Sax vegz and veyy. in Dan.-Sax, by and pig. b In Nor.-Sax. tezzpa and teyypa.

The Anglo-Saxon article is prefixed both to proper and common names: re is put before masculine nouns; as, re man the man, and re Iohanner John: reo before feminine nouns; as reo pirman the woman, and reo Schelrlede Æthelsteda: and bæt before neuter nouns; as, par rab the seed.

# 46. The Definitive Dir this, is declined thus:

### SINGULAR.

Masc. Fem. Neut.

N. Dir this hie Deor this heec Dir this hoc

G. Direr of this Dirrened of this Direr of this D. Dirume to, &c. Dirrene to, &c. Dirume to this

A. Dirne this. Dare this. Dira this.

### PLURAL.

# Masc. Fem. & Neut.

N. Dar these, hi, hæ, hæc

11

G. Dirrena of these

D. Dirum to, by, &c. these

A. Dar these.

\* þær, þer, þeor.

b þijjer, þejer, þær.

c þij, þijon or þýjon, þajjum,

d þijje, þæne, þijene.

b þijja, þijena, þijj or þýjj.

Sometimes by this, in the masculine or feminine gender appears to be less definite than common, and merely supplies the place of the article re, reo, bæc the: as, Send up on bar ppyn, Send us into the swine, Mark v. 12. Da eodon ba unclænan zarcar on ba ppyn, Then the unclean spirits entered into the swine.

47. The following definitives are declined like min my, or zoo good:

Masc. & Neut.	Fem.
Æniz, æni	ænize any
Næniz	
Ænlipic, ænlipiz	ænlipize each
Sum	
Eall	
Ælc	ælce all
Apiht, apuht, apht, auht, aht, uht, piht, or puht	<b>)</b> .
auht, aht, uht,	\ching
piht, or puht	
Ælc-uht	any-thing
Napiht, nopiht, nauht, naht, nænizpuht	
nauht, naht, $\rangle$ .	···-no-thing
nænizpuht	
Nan-uht	no-thing
Spile, hpile, billie, byle or birlie,	rpilce such
Ylc	ÿlce same.

These are declined like adjective pronouns in -ep, such as eopen your:

Masc. & Neut. Fem.

Auþen, oþen, oþon, opþen, ouþen. auþene, &c. other Æzþen. ... ... æzþene both, either Naþen, napþen, naþon, nahpæþen, naþene neither, &c.

### RELATIVE PRONOUNS.

48. Relative Pronouns are so named because they relate or refer to some word or clause going before, hence called their antecedent. Dpa, hua who, Masc. and Fem., and hpær, huær what, Neut. &c. are thus declined:

### SINGULAR & PLURAL.

Masc. & Fem.		Neut.	
N. Dpa G. Dpær D. Dpama A. Dpæneb	who	Dpæt° Dpamª Dpæt	what of what to what what.
• hpæm and hpi.	b h	pone.	° hpar, huær.

### EXAMPLES.

The use of Dpa may be seen in the following examples. Dpa realde be dirne anneald, Who gave thee this power? Matt. xxi. 23. Dua 17 big, Who is this? Dpær runu 17 he, Whose son is he? Matt. xxii. 42. Dpæne rece ze, Whom seek ye? John viii. 7. Dpær penre bu, What thinkest thou? Mark iv. 41.

Dipæt is used for hpa: as, Dipæt if ber, Who is this? Mark iv. 41. Dipæt if ber manner runu, Who is this

man's son? John xii. 34.

In the same manner—that is like hpa—are declined

MASCULINE and FEMININE.	NEUTER.
Æz hpa every one	Æz hpæt (from ælc hpa) every
Eller hpa who else?	Eller hpær what else?
Le hpa any one	Le hper any thing
Spa hpa rpa whosoever: as, Spa	Spa hpat ppa whatsoever: as, Dod
hpa rpa eop ne undeprehd,	rpa hpæt rya he eop recze, Do
Whosoever shall not receive you.	whatsoever he telleth you. St.
Matt. x. 14.	John ii. 5.

49. The relative pronoun hpile, Masc. (qui) who; hpile, Fem. (quæ) who; hpile, Neut. (quod) which or

what. Gen. hpilcer, Masc. and Newt. (cujus) whose; hpilcene or hpilcne, Fem. whose, &c. is declined like the adjective 700 good, or the adjective pronoun uncen, &c.

Spa hpile rpa whosoever, is declined in the same manner: as, Spa hpylene rpa hi bædon, Whomsoever they

asked. Mark xv. 6.

Dpile is also used in a definitive sense, signifying every one, all; and its compounds æzhpile, æzhpilee (for æle hpile) every one, &c.

### OF Numbers.

50. Numbers are either Cardinal or Ordinal. The Cardinal express numbers absolutely, and are the hinges upon which the others turn: as, an one; tpezen two; ppy three, &c.

Ordinal Numbers denote order or succession: as re ropma the first; re open the second; re prioda the

third, &c.

# CARDINAL NUMBERS. ORDINAL NUMBERS. 1 An one Se popma the first 2 Tpegen two Se open the second 3 Dpy three Se pubba the third 4 Feopen four Se people the fourth 5 Fir five Se pixta the fifth 6 Six six. Se pixta the seriest 7 Seopond seven...... Se peopopa the seventh 8 Cahra eight..... Se eahreoba the eighth 9 Nizon nine..... Se nizopa the ninth 10 Tyn ten ..... Se veoba the tenth 11 Endlugan e eleven ...... Se endlugta the eleventh 12 Tpelr twelve ...... Se rpelra the twelfth 13 Dpeoryne thirteen . . . . . Se ppeorepa the thirteenth 14 Feopencyone fourteen ..... Se reopenceopa the fourteenth 15 Fireyne fifteen ..... Se rigreopa the fifteenth 16 Sixtyne sixteen ...... Se jixteopa the sixteenth 17 Seopontique seventeen..... Se reoponteops the seventeenth 18 Cahraryne eighteen...... Se eahrareoba the sighteenth a æne, æn. d reoren, rýran. b epeze, tpiz, tpa. ° ænoleran, ænolyran.

c ppeo, like the Cimbric PRA thry. endlerta, anlyrta, allyrta.

CARDINAL NUMB	ers.	Ordinal Numbers.
19 Nizontyne ninet	een	Se nigonceopa the nineteenth
20 Trentiz twenty		Se tpenteozopa the twentieth
21 An j tpentiz of twenty	$me$ and $\}$	An j vpenveozopa one and twen- tieth
30 Dpicciz thirty		Se pruccizo a the thirtieth
40 Feopencia forty		Se reopenteozoga the fortieth
50 Fire fifty		Se rurreozoga the fiftieth
60 Sixting sixty		Se rixteozooa the sixtieth
70 bUNDreoronti	z seventy	Se pixeogoda the sixtieth Se bUNDreoponuzoda the seventieth
		Se DUN Deahrang von the eighti- eth
90 bUNDnizontiz	ninety	SebUNDnizonreozoga the nine- tieth
100 bUNDreontiz	an hun-}	Se DUN Dreonteogo Sa the hun- dredth
110 DUNDenlupont dred and ten	eng an hun-	&c. &c.
120 DUNDepelying and twenty	an hundred	
200 Tpahund two hu	ndred	
1000 Durend a thouse		
* &c. &c.		

- 51. To the preceding Numerals may be added,
  Sum, rume, some, or about; as, prittiza rum, some
  thirty, or about thirty, Sumetpezen, about two, Sume
  ten, about ten, Ba, bezen, batha, buth, buth,
  Thir zerum twins Angello (one fold) simple:
  - Tpin, zetpin, twins, An-reald (one fold), simple; tpy-reald, two-fold; ppyreald, three-fold.
- Sio, a journey, time, especially in the Dative Plural pipum, pipon, or pipan, is added to numerals to denote times; as, Feopen pipon four times, Fir pion five times, Dundreopontiz pipon seventy times. The three first Numerals have their own form to express this idea; as, zene once, trypa twice, pripa thrice or three times.

# DECLENSION OF NUMERALS.

52. An, ane one, and rum, rume some, are declined like the adjective zoo good.

Ba both, tpa two, and ppy three, are declined thus:

N. Ba both
G. Begna of both
D. Bam to or by both
A. Ba both.

Feopen in the Dative remains reopen; as in Orosius, p. 22, On reopen bazum in four days: but it makes reopen in the Genitive

Fir five, and rix six, are indeclinable. Seoron seven has a Genitive, reorona.

Tpelp has tpelpum and tpelpa; as, an op ham tpelpum, an hana tpelpa, one of the twelve. But it is often indeclinable; as, mid hyp tpelp leopming-cribtum, amidst his twelve learning knights (disciples).

Tpentiz twenty, and other words in -tiz are declined

N. -tiz
G. -tiz-na
D. -tiz-uma
A. -tiz.

\* -on, -an.

These words in -tiz are used in the nominative and accusative both as nouns which govern the genitive, and as adjectives which are combined with nouns in the same case; but in the dative and genitive they seem to be used merely as adjectives; as, thentiz zeapa, twenty years: thrittiz reillingar or reillinga thirty [of] shillings: thentizum pintrum for twenty years, prittizum purenoum by thirty thousands.

53. The word DEALF half, before or after a numeral denotes that half must be taken from the number expressed; as Open healf, one and a half, Dneo healf or Dnidoe healfe, two and a half, Tpa zeane J pnidoe half, two years and half the third, Feonbe healfe, three and a half.

Ordinal Numbers are declined as Adjectives.

The Anglo-Saxons also expressed numbers in the same manner as the Romans, by the different positions of the following letters I, U, X, L, E, D,  $\Omega$ .

### CHAPTER V. THE VERB.

54. A Verb is said to be "that part of speech which signifies to be, or to do;" or it asserts something of a noun: as, Se man lupad, the man loveth; here lupad is a verb, because it signifies to do something, or asserts the action of the noun man. Dip boc yr, his book is; and Tpelp pitega ryndon, twelve prophets are. In these examples, yr and ryndon are known to be verbs, because they assert the existence or being of hir boc and tpelp pitega.

Anglo-Saxon verbs may be divided into Active and

Neuter.

55. In regard to their inflection, Verbs are regular,

irregular, or defective.

56. To Verbs belong Conjugation, Mood, Tense, Number, and Person.

#### CONJUGATION.

57. Conjugation is a regular arrangement of the inflections incident to verbs.

In Anglo-Saxon, all the inflections of verbs may be arranged under one form; there is, therefore, only one conjugation \*.

<sup>\*</sup> What is generally termed the passive voice has no existence in the Anglo-Saxon, any more than in the modern English language. The Anglo-Saxons wrote, he is luroo, he is loved. Here he is the ind. indef. of the neut. verb eom, and luroo loved, is the perfect participle of the verb lupian to love. In parsing, every word should be considered a distinct part of speech: we do not call "to a king" a dative case in English, as we do regi in Latin, because the English phrase is not formed by inflection, but by the auxiliary words "to a." If these auxiliary words do not form cases in English nouns, but are

#### THE MOODS.

58. The change a verb undergoes to express the mode or manner in which an action or state exists is called mood. There are four moods in Saxon: Indicative, Subjunctive, Imperative, and Infinitive.

59. Verbs are used in a particular form to affirm, deny, or interrogate, which form, from the principal use of it, is called the *Indicative* mood; as, Ic lupize, I love, or shall love. Ne pepoe, He went not. Lu-

rart bu me, Lovest thou me?

60. The Subjunctive mood generally represents a conditional or contingent action, and is subjoined to some member of the sentence, sometimes expressed, but often understood: as, Ic eop rylle nipe bebod. If ze lurion eop betrynan, I give you a new commandment, that ye love one another. St. John, xiii. 34. Dæt pu onenape, That thou mightest know. St. Luke, i. 4.

This mood, from denoting duty, will, power, is sometimes called the Potential mood; and from expressing a wish, it is occasionally denominated the Optative mood.

61. The form of the verb used for commanding, intreating, permitting, &c. from the chief use of it, is called the Imperative mood, as, Prit right, Write fifty. Luke, xvi. 6. The imperative is formed from the infinitive by rejecting the termination -an; as, Tryran to give, zyr give, or zir hu give thou.

62. The Infinitive mood expresses the action or state denoted by the verb in a general manner, without any reference to number, person, or time. It may be denominated a verbal noun, and ends in -an, -ean, -1an, -zan, -zean, -zian, or -on; as, Lurian to love.

universally rejected, why may not the passive voice, and all the moods and tenses formed by auxiliaries, be rejected, not only from the English, but from its parent the Saxon? Thus, Ic mæz beon lupod, I may be loved, instead of being called the potential mood, pass. is more rationally parsed by considering mæz a verb in the indic. mood, indef. tense, 1st. sing: beon, the infin. mood of eom am, after the verb mæz: lupod is the perfect participle of the verb lupan. See Note, p. 46:

#### PARTICIPLES.

63. A Participle is derived from a verb, and partakes of the nature of an adjective, in agreeing with a noun; and of the nature of the verb, in denoting action or being; but differing from a verb in this, that the participle implies no affirmation.

There are two participles; the Imperfect and the Perfect.

- 64. The Imperfect participle in Anglo-Saxon is formed by substituting -ande, -ende, -ende, -ende, -onde, -unde, and -ynde for the infinitive terminations, and represents an action as going on, but not ended: as, De pær hælende ælce adle, He was HEALING every disease. Matt. iv. 23.
- 65. The Perfect participle denotes an action which is perfect or complete, and is formed by changing the infinitive terminations into -ao, -æo, -eo, -1o, -oo, -uo, and -yo, and often prefixing ze-; as from Lupian to love, is formed Lupoo, or Lelupoo, loved; from Alyran to redeem, Alyreo redeemed.

When verbs have the letters  $\tau$ , p, c, h, x, and r, preceded by a consonant, going before the infinitive termination, they often not only reject the vowel before o in the participle, but change o into  $\tau$ ; as from Dyppan to dip, would be regularly formed Dyppeo dipped, contracted into Dyppo, Dyppe, and Dype dipped.

All participles are declined like adjectives.

#### TENSE.

66. Tense is that variation of the verb which is used

to signify time.

Verbs, relating to the time of any action or event, undergo two changes of termination; the one to express time *Indefinite*, and the other time *Perfect* or past: there are, therefore, two tenses or times, the *Indefinite*, and the *Perfect* or Past.

67. Time indefinite may refer either to the present period, or to a future, and thus comprehends what are generally termed the present and future *tenses* or times;

in many instances it is, in the strictest sense of the term, indefinite, referring to any period, and appearing to have scarcely any connexion with time, as Ic lurize I love (at all times): Cadize rynd mild heaptan, Blessed are the (mild-hearted) merciful. Ic recze, I say, or affirm (always).

68. The Perfect or past tense, from its name, evidently denotes an action as past or finished, and is formed from the infinitive mood by adding -ede or -ode after the rejection of the infinitive terminations -an, -ean, -1an, -3an, -3ean, -31an; as, Infinitive, lurian to

love, Perfect, Ic lupobe I loved.

69. Verbs having the consonants o, p, z, l, m, n, p, r, and of, before the infinitive termination, often contract this tense, and have only -oe added instead of -eoe or -ooe; as, betynan to shut, betynoe I shut or have shut; adpæran to drive away, adpæroe I drove away; alyran to redeem, alyroe I redeemed.

The b is often changed into its corresponding consonant when preceded by the consonants t, p, c, h, x, and r, as well in the perfect tense as in the participle (see paragraph 65); metan to meet, met-te met, for met-be; by ppan to baptize or dip, by pte I baptized or dipped.

Verbs which end in -dan or -tan with a consonant preceding, do not take an additional door to in the past tense; as, rendan to send, rende I sent; ahneddan to liberate, ahnedde I liberated; plintan to plight or pledge, plinte I plighted or pledged; rettan to set, rette I set.

#### NUMBER AND PERSON.

70. One or more persons may speak, be spoken to, or spoken of: Hence the origin of NUMBER and PERSON.

Verbs have two numbers, the Singular and Plural; as, Ic bænne I burn, Pe bænnað we burn.

71. There are three Persons in each number.

SINGULAR. PLURAL.
First Person Ic bæpn-e Pe bæpn-að
Second Person Du bæpn-yt Le bæpn-að.
Third Person De bæpn-ð. Di bæpn-að.

The first person singular is formed from the infinitive by changing -an or -ean &c. into -e, and the second into -rt, -art, or -ert, and the third into -8, -a8, -e8.

In the third person singular the aspirate of is often changed into the soft t; as, apart he riseth. This may be frequently observed, when the infinitive ends in -ban, -ran, or -tan; as, rædan to feed, ret he feedeth or will feed; næran to rush, nært he rusheth; hætan to name,

to call, hæt he called.

When the infinitive ends in -an with a vowel before it. the plural persons end in -128; as, Dingpian to hunger, hingpiad we, ye, they hunger; pypian to curse, pypiad we, ye, they curse. If the infinitive end in -eon, the plural persons are formed in -eoo; as, zereon to see, zereo we, ye, they see: but if a consonant go before -an, then they end in -ao; as, byprcan to thirst, bynrtað we, ye, they thirst. The plural persons also end in -on, -en, -un, -an, as well as -að: as, pitun, pitað ye wot, or know; nyton, nuuton, nytad ye know not. It is sometimes read putar ye know, and by the poets putoo. for they often use the termination -08 instead of -a8.

The plural persons often end in the same manner as the first person singular, especially when the Saxon pronoun is placed after the verb: as, Dræt ete pe, what

shall we eat; Du rleo ze, how shall you fly.

If there be a double consonant in the verb, one is always rejected, in forming the persons, when another follows: as, rpillan to spill, rpilrt spillest, rpild spilleth, rpilde spilled. Where it would be too harsh to add rt and of to the bare root, an e is inserted; but only in the indefinite tense; as, naman to name, namert namest, name of nameth:—the perfect is regularly formed nember named; and so is the perfect participle nemned named.

On all occasions, when e follows 1, a z is inserted between them; hence lurie I love, becomes lurize I love; and lurience loving, becomes lurizence loving: 7 is also often found before an e or ea; as, rceapizan, or rceapizean to shew, which are the same as rceapian to

shew.

### REGULAR VERBS.

72. Verbs are regular when they form their perfect tense in -be, -ebe, or -obe, and perfect participle in -eb, -ab, -ab, -ib, -ob, -ub, or -yb.

# 73. THE CONJUGATION OF A REGULAR VERB.

# The principal Parts.

Infinitive. Perfect. Perf. Participle.

Bæpn-an to burn, bæpn-de burned, bæpn-ed burned.

Lup-ian to love, lup-ode loved, lup-od loved.

. 74. Lupian to love, is not given as an example of conjugating a regular verb, because, having a z inserted between 1 and e, it is not so regular as many other words; for instance, Bæpnan to burn; Eennan to know; Fýllan to fill; &c.

BERNAN to burn is thus conjugated:

### INDICATIVE MOOD.

# Indefinite Tense \*---shall.

SING. Ic bæpn-e

Du bæpn-yc²

De, heo, or hit bæpn-ð bhe, she, or it burneth, &c.

PLUR. Pe bæpn-að we burn or shall burn

Ge bæpn-að ye or you burn or shall burn

Di bæpn-að they burn or shall burn.

\*-ayt, -eyt. b-að, eð. -on, -en, -un, -an.

Ic eom bænn-ende
Du eant bænn-ende
&c.

I burn, am burning, or do burn
thou burnest, art burning, or dost burn.
&c.

In Dano-Saxon, this tense is sometimes inflected thus;

SINGULAR.

Ic bæpn-a, -o

I burn

Du bæpn-er, -ar

be &c. bæpn-a,-ar,-er,-ir he&c. burneth.

SINGULAR.

PLURAL.

PLURAL.

PLURAL.

PLURAL.

PLURAL.

PLURAL.

PLURAL.

be bæpn-ar, -er we burn

Lie bæpn-ar, -er ye burn

bi bæpn-ar, -er they burn.

<sup>•</sup> This tense is also formed by the neuter verb eom I am, and the imperfect participle; as,

# Perfect Tense -ed—have\*.

sing. Ic bænn-bea

I burned

Du bænn-bertb

thou burnedst

De, heo, or hyt bænn-de. he, she, or it burned.

PLUR. Pe bæpn-bon c

we burned

Le bænn-bon<sup>c</sup>

ye or you burned

Di bænn-don c

they burned.

\* -ebe, -obe b -ber or -ober in Dano-Saxon.

c -obon.

#### SUBJUNCTIVE MOOD.

# Indefinite Tense—if, that.

may, can, might, could, would, or should.

sing. Ic bænn-e\*

I burn

Du bænn-e he, &c. bænn-e thou burn he, &c. burn.

PLUR. Pe bænn-on b

we burn

Le bænn-on b Di bænn-on b

ye burn they burn.

· Lip if, or bar that, understood.

# Perfect Tense -- if, -ed.

sing. Ic bænn-beb

I burned thou burned

Đu bæpn-be

De, heo, or his bæpn-de he, she, or it burned.

PLUR. Pe bænn-bonc

we burned ye burned

Le bænn-donc Di bæpn-donc

they burned.

 This tense is often inflected like the perfect tense indicative.

• Eir if, or par that, understood. c -edon, -odon.

<sup>\*</sup> The past tense is also formed by pær, the past tense of the neuter verb com, and the imperfect participle; as,

sing. Ic pær bæpn-ende I burned, did burn, or was burning Du pæne bænn-ende thou burnedst, didst burn, or wast burning, &c.

#### IMPERATIVE MOOD.

sing. Bænn þu burn thou. Plur. Bænn-aða ze burn ye.

bæpne, and in Dano-Saxon bæpn-ar, -er.

#### INFINITIVE MOOD.

Indefinite Tense—to.

Bænn-an to burn.

There is another form of the infinitive, which has a more extended signification; as, Dyt 17 tima to bæpnenne, It is time to burn.

To, about to; of, in, and to, ing; to be ed.

Bænn-enne

{ to burn, about to burn; of, in, and to burning, and to be burned.}

#### PARTICIPLES.

Imperfect -ing.

Bænn-ende \* burning.

\* -aude.

Perfect -ed.
Bæpn-eð burned.

b -oð, -að.

#### IRREGULAR VERBS.

75. A verb is called irregular when it does not form its perfect tense in -be, -ebe, -obe; and perfect participle in -eb, -ab, -æb, -ıb, -ob, -ub, or -yb; as,

Infinitive. Perf. Tense. Perf. Part.

Ppitan to write. Ppat wrote. Ppiten written.
&c. &c. &c.

In Anglo-Saxon, most verbs being of one syllable after the rejection of the infinitive terminations, or those of one syllable besides the prefixes a, be, pop, ze, &c. as well as a few of more syllables than one, are irregular. A complete list of these verbs will be found in page 49; but the following general observations will be very use-

ful to the student in shewing the manner of forming the Perfect Tense, and Perfect Participle, in monosyllabic verbs.

76. Verbs which become monosyllables after casting away the infinitive termination, when the remaining vowel is a, often change it into o, and occasionally into eo; and ea generally into eo, in the past tense; while the vowel in the perfect participle remains unchanged; as,

Infin. Perf. Tense. Perf. Particip. Standan to stand. Stod stood. Standen stood.

77. Verbs which have e or eo before the letters II, IZ, Iz, pp, pr, rZ, and the like, have ea—and in a few cases æ—in the past tense, and o in the perfect participle; as, Delran to dig Dealr dug Dolren dug.

But e before a single consonant, or before a double consonant differing from the above, is often changed into æ in the perfect tense; while the perfect participle remains like the infinitive: as,

Fperan to fret Fpær fretted Fperan fretted.

78. Verbs which have 1 before the double consonants nn, nz, nc, no, mb, mp, &c. often change the 1 into a in the past tense, and into u in the past participle; as,

Singan to sing Sang sang Sungen sung.

Those which have 1 before a single consonant also change the 1 into a in the perfect tense; the perfect participle is like the infinitive, or in u; as,

Dpiran to drive Dpar drove Dpiren driven.

# Formation of Persons in Irregular Verbs.

79. The personal terminations are most commonly like those in regular verbs: as, Ic rande I stand, bu rander thou standest, he randed he standeth. Plur. pe, ze, hi randad we, ye, they stand.

80. The first vowel in the verb, however, is often changed in the second and third persons of the singular

in the indefinite tense; but the plural persons retain the vowel of the first person singular.

a is generally changed to æ, and sometimes to e or ý.

e, ea, and u often become y, and sometimes 1.

o is converted into e.

u or eo becomes y.

The other vowels, 1 and y, are not changed.

From Bacan to bake, we have Ic bace I bake, bu bæcgt thou bakest, he bæco he baketh. Plur. pe, ze, hi bacao we, ye, they bake.

From Standan to stand, we also sometimes find Ic rtande I stand, bu rtenrt thou standest, he rtent he standeth. The plural as above.

From Exan to eat, we have Ic exe I eat, bu yert thou eatest, he ye he eateth. Plur. pe, ze, hi exas we, ye, they eat.

From Sceotan to shoot, are formed Ic recove I shoot, bu revert thou shootest, he reve he shooteth. Plur.

pe, ze, hi rceotad we, ye, they shoot.

81. The same observations which were made on the formation of the third person of regular verbs ending in dan, ran, tan, &c., will be applicable here: as, Ic pide I ride, he pit or pide he rides; Ic cpede I say, bu cpyrt thou sayest, he cpyd he saith; Ic ceope I choose, bu cyrt thou choosest, he cyrt he chooses;—and in etan to eat.

Verbs which have c, cc, and z before the infinitive termination, often change these letters into h when they are followed by t: as, Racan to reach, næhte he reached, nahton we, ye, they reach. The c is not changed before other letters: as we find bu nacrt thou reachest, and he nacad he reaches; Læcan to take hold of, læhte he took hold of; Streeccan to stretch or strew, rtpehton we, ye, they strewed (Matt. xxi. 8); Bringan to bring, bronch, bronch, I or he brought, bronch we, ye, they brought.

82. The persons in the perfect tense are often formed

like regular verbs; but the second person singular more frequently ends in e: as, from Bacan to bake, we have the past tense Boc, boce.

# Perfect Tense.

#### SINGULAR.

#### PLURAL.

Ic boc	1 baked	Pe bocon	we baked
Đu boce	thou bakedst	Le bocon	ye baked
Де, &c. boc	he, &c. baked.	או bocon	they baked.

83. Verbs which have u or o after the first vowel in the perfect participle, often have u in the second person singular and all the plural persons of this tense; as in regular verbs, the third person singular is like the first: as,

# Perfect Tense.

#### SINGULAR.

#### PLURAL.

Ic rang	I sang	Pe runzon we sang
Đu runge	thou sangest	Le rungon ye sang
De, or heo, ra	ing heorshesang.	Di runzon they sang.

Sometimes rt is joined to the second person singular: as, Ic rand I found, bu runde or rundert thou

foundest, &c.

84. Verbs of one syllable terminating in a vowel, have an h annexed to them; and those in z generally change the z into h, in all parts of the verb, as well as in the imperative mood: as, ppean to wash; Imperative ppeah wash; Perfect tense, ppoh washed. Scizan to mount; Perfect tense, reah.

#### DEFECTIVE VERBS.

85. Verbs which are deficient in tense or person, are properly called *defective*: such as, mor can; more must, &c.

The Greeks and Romans expressed the most common modes of action or existence by inflection; but the Anglo-Saxons generally denoted them by the following irregular and defective verbs.

86. Simple affirmation or existence is denoted by peran or beon to be, or peopoan, zepeopoan, to be or to be made, which are thus conjugated:

Indef. Perf. Perf. Particip. Peran to be. Com am. Pær was. Peren or zeperen been. Beon to be. Beo am. -

Infin. Indef. Peophan to be, or to be made or done.

Peophe am, or am made.

Perf.

Perf. Particip. peand { was, or poppen { been, made, was made. Grepopen } or done.

# INDICATIVE MOOD. Indefinite Tense.

am, or shall be. am, shall be, or am made. am

SING.	Ic eom a	beo e	peopþe *
	Đu eaμτ <sup>b</sup>	býrt <sup>f</sup>	peophert
	De, &c. 17°.	byðs.	peonbed.
PLUR	Pe rynod	beoð հ	peoppad
	Le ryndd	ხeoზ <sup>h</sup>	peopþað
	Di rynod.	beo්ර <sup>h</sup> .	peopþað.

<sup>·</sup> eam, am, om; an; ri, rý.

apo; ri, er.

<sup>°</sup> ÿŗ; ŗı, ŗie, ŗeo.

fino, rine, rin, ryn, rien, rient, reon, rie; ryndon, rindon, Saxon beoban.

rındun, rendon, riendon; apon.

<sup>·</sup> beom, brom.

f bijt. ේ biර, beot, beo. h biod, bibon, and in Dano-

<sup>\*</sup> This tense is also thus conjugated:

sing. Ic puppe, -de, pyppe Du puppert, puppert, pyprt De peoppe, puppe, -de, pyppe, pypd.

PLUR. Pe peophon, -had, peandon, -dan, -den, punhad Le peophe, -hed, -ded, -dad Di peophon, -had, -don, -dan, -den, -dun.

# Perfect Tense.

was, have been, had been	n.	was, was made.			
sing. Ic pæra		peano			
Đu pæpe <sup>b</sup>	-	peanbert <sup>d</sup>			
he, &c. pær•.	···-	pean'd.			
PLUR. Pe pæpon c	<del></del>	peopoon e			
Le pæpon c		peopoon f			
Di pænon c.	***************************************	peopoons.			
* pæpe, and in the third pers • pær, and in Dano-S • uuer, uier, uær, per.	* pæpe, and in the third person pay.  * pæp, and in Dano-Saxon  * peopoan, -en, pupoon, -an, -en.  * pæpun, pæpum, pæpum.  * peopoan, -en, pupoon, -an, -en.  * peopoan, -en, pupoon, -an, -en.				
	•				
be. be, may	, can, snouta be, & beo	be, be made or done. people d			
Đu rý	beo	peophe			
he, &c. r <del>ỳ</del> .	beo.	peophed.			
PLUR. Pe rýnb	beon c	peoplyon <sup>d</sup>			
Le ryn	beon c	peophon d			
Di rýn <sup>b</sup> .	beon c.	peophon <sup>d</sup> .			
• •		have sometimes the or-			
feo, pio, piz, pie, pe.		cal variations of the In-			
ේ beo'ත්, bɪo'ත්.	definit <b>e</b> Iı	ndicative. See Note *.			
$P_{c}$	erfect Tense.				
were, would be, &c.		uld be made or done.			
sing. Ic pæpe* —		punde			
Đu pæpe 🚤		punde			
De&c.pæpe. —		punde.			
PLUR. Pe pæpon b -		pundon c			
Ge pænon b	<del></del>	pupoon c			
Di pæpon <sup>b</sup> . —	<del></del>	pundon c.			
* pene. * pæpan, -en,	-un, pæpe. °	pundan, -en, -að, -eð.			
IMPERATIVE MOOD.					
- <i>be.</i>	be.	be, be made.			
sing. Sia þu	beo	peonod.			
PLUR. Sin 6 ze.	beon c.	peonide e.			
fi, fig, per or pær. fien,pere, porar porar peras.	e beð. S; or beoþan.	, beoð, in Dano-Saxon d peopþa. það, -an, -en.			

# INFINITIVE MOOD. Indefinite Tense.

to be. Perana to be.

to be, or to be made.

about to be.

about to be.

about to be, &c.

Peranne<sup>b</sup>

beonne

peophanne.

\* pæran, and in Dano-Saxon pora, porra, porra, poran, pene, rie.

b poranne.

### PARTICIPLES.

Imperfect.

being. Perende. being.

being, being made or done.
peophende.

# PARTICIPLE Perfect.

been.

to have.

been, made or done.
Ponden, zeponden.

Peren, zeperen.

87. Possession is denoted by DJEBBAN or DABBAN

Infin. Indef. Perf. Perf. Particip.

### INDICATIVE MOOD.

#### SUBJUNCTIVE MOOD.

Indef. \*-have. Perf.-had. Indef.-if, have. Perf.-if, had. hæroð d sin. Ic hæbbe<sup>a</sup> hæbbe hæroo h Du hæbbertb hæbbe hærobert hæroð De.&c.hebba&. hæroo. hæbbe 8. hæroð. PLU. Pe hæbbað¢ hærbon f hæbbon hærbon Le hæbbaðc hæroon f hæbbon hærdon Di&c.hæbbæð. hærðonf. hæbbon. hærbon.

- habbe, hara, haue.
- harajt, hærjt, haujt.
  habbað, harað, hærð, haueð,
- harias; and in Norm.-Sax. haren, and hauen.
- d hærbe (contracted from hærpobe), hert.
  - here, hæroe.
  - heardon, hæddon.
    hehd. hærde.

<sup>\*</sup> This tense is used with a perfect participle to express what is called in Latin the Preterperfect tense: as, Ic habbe genet, posui,

IMPERATIVE MOOD.

sing. Dara bu have thou. PLUR. Dabbada ze have ye.

· habbabe.

INFINITIVE MOOD.

hæbban b to have hæbbenne about to have.

b habban.

#### PARTICIPLES.

Imperfect.

Perfect.

Dæbbende having.

Dæreo, hæro had.

88. Liberty is expressed by the verb Mazan to be able; Futurity and Duty are expressed by Scealan, reylan to owe; Volition and Futurity by Pıllan, pyllan to will or

The principal parts of these verbs are

Infin.	Ind	ef.	Perfect.
Mazan to be able Scealan to owe Pýllan to wish	mæz n rceal s pýlle u	nay m shall ro vill po	nht <i>might.</i> eolo <i>should.</i> lo, polo <b>e would.</b>
INDICATIVE	MOOD.	Indefinite	Tense.
	7 7	7 77	172

may, can, am able.	shall.	will.
sing. Ic mæz	rceal c	pýlle°
Đu mæzert*	rcealt	pỳlt
he &c. mæz.	rcealc.	pýlle s.
PLUR. Pe mazon b	rceolon d	pillon h
Le mazon b	rceolon d	pillon h
Di mazon b.	rceolon d.	pillon b.

- a miht, meaht, mage.
- mazon,-an,-en,-un; mæzen.
- rceolun, -an, rchullen, rculon, rcylon.

• pile. • pile, pille, pŷlle, pŷle. pile, pille.

h pýllað, pillen, -an, pille, pylle, pilen.

I have set, or placed; Ic have zeheono, audivi, I have heard. Ic hæbbe is a verb of the first person singular, and zerez a perfect participle. In the same manner, Ic reeal pærtan, I shall fast; Ic reeal is a verb of the indicative mood, indefinite tense, and rærcan is evidently in the infinitive mood.

The other moods and tenses of the preceding verbs are inflected like Bæpnan: but we sometimes find minte and meante for mint, he might or could; recolde and recole for recold, he should.

89. The defective verbs Mot can, or be able, and

Mort must or ought, are thus conjugated:

# may, can, or am able.

SING.	PLUR.	SING.	PLUR.
Ic mot  Du motert  De mot	moton b moton b	mortert mortert morte	morton morton morton
a more.	b moten.	e mo	rte

### IMPERSONAL VERBS.

90. Many verbs are only used in the third person singular; and are therefore called impersonal. In other respects they are like regular verbs. Die pind, or hie pynde, or pinde hye, it rains; hie punpode it thundered.

Some of these are used as personal with a pronoun of the accusative case: as, Me binco, me binco, me binco, mihi videtur, it seems to me, or I think; Me relpum buhce, (Boet. p. 94, 1. 16,) mihi ipsi visum est, it appropried to me or I thought

it appeared to me, or I thought.

91. Man, with the verb, is often rendered impersonally, as the old French word homme, or the modern on, and the English one and they. For example; Man minte zereon one might see. Chron. An. 1011; Man by brought. See Lye's Dictionary, sub voce Man, for more examples.

#### A LIST OF IRREGULAR VERBS.

92. The following are the principal irregular verbs, with their chief variations.

Acpencan, to extinguish; acpent, acpanc, acpinen, quenched.

Abneogan, to suffer; abneag, he suffered; abnugon, we, ye, they suffered.

Er-hpinan, to touch; er-hpan, he touched.

Azan, to own or possess; aze, thou hast; ah, he has; azun, azan, we, ye, they have; ahz, -e, he had; ahzon, we, ye, they had or possessed.

Tharan, to lift up; ahor, he hath lifted up.

Ahneoran, to rush; aneor, ahnur, he rushed; ahnuron, they rushed.

Anan, to give; an, I give; unne, I give, or thou givest; unnon, we, ye, they give; uhe, uhhe, ubbe, I or he gave.

Apiran, to arise; apar, he arose; apiron, we, ye, they arose; apiren, arisen.

Arpanan, to allure; arpon, he allured; arpanen, arponnen, allured.

Appean, to wash; appoh, he washed.

Appean, to reveal; appeah, he revealed.

Bacan, to bake; boc, I baked. See ETYM. 76.

Bearan, to beat; beor, he beat.

Berninan, to ask; bernan, -nune, he asked. Belgan, to be angry; bealg, -lh, he was angry.

Belucan, Belycan, to lock up; belyco, he locks up; beleac, he locked up; belucon, or belocen, we, ye, they locked up.

Beodan, to bid; bead, bude, he bade.

Beon, to be. See ETYM. 86.

Beongan, to beware; beonh, he took care.

Bepæcan, to deceive; bepæht, he deceived; bepæhtert, thou deceivedst. Likewise Pæcan.

Bepitan, to preside over; bepirte, he presided over.

Bioan, to abide; bao, he abode; bioen, abode. See ETYM. 78.

Biddan, to pray; bityt, thou prayest; bit, he prays; bad, bæd, he prayed.

Bizean, Buzan, to bow; beah, bizoe, he bowed; bezo, bezeo, bowed. So Abuzan, Lebuzan.

Binoan, to bind; bano, he bound; bunden, bound.

Bpecan, to break; bpæc, he broke; bpocen, broken. See ETYM. 77.

Bningan, to bring; bnoht, bnohte, he brought.

Bnucan, to enjoy; bneac, bnæc, he enjoyed.

Buzan. See Bizean.

Byczean, to buy; bohre, he bought. So Bebyczean, to sell.

Leoran, to choose; cear, he chose.

Enapan, to know; cneop, he knew; cnapen, known.

Eoman, Euman, Epiman, to come; com, cum, he came; comon, cumon, -un, they came.

Epapan, to crow; cpeop, he crew; cpapen, crowed. See Etym. 76.

Euman. See Eoman.

Eunnan, to know; can, I know; can; cunne, thou knowest; cunnon, we, ye, they know; cube, he knew.

Epæþan, to say; cpeþe, I say; cpirt, thou sayest; cpiro, he says; cpæo, cpæbe, he said; cpæbon, we, ye, they said; cpæbon, said.

Eypan, to tell; cyode, cypde, he told.

Deappan, Dyppan, to dare; deap, deape, I dare; duppe, thou darest; duppon, we, ye, they dare; doppe, he durst.

Delran, to dig; dealr, dulr, dielr, delr, dalr, he dug; dolren, dulren, digged. See ETYM. 77.

Don, to do or make; do, I do; der, dyr, thou dost; ded, dyd, he doth; dod, we, ye, they do; did, dide, dyde, he did or hath done; dyden, we, ye, they did; do, don, he may do, they may do.

Dneccan, to vex or grieve; onohr, -hee, he vexed;

opohoon, opehoon, we, ye, they vexed.

Dpipan, to drive; opap, he drove; opipen, driven. See ETYM. 78.

Dynnan, to dare; bonrte, bunrte, he dared.

Eblæcan, to repeat; eblæhte, he repeated; eblæht, ebleaht, repeated.

Emplacian, to look around; emplac, he looked around.

Etan, to eat; æt, ate; eten, eaten.

Fapan, to go; pop, pepte, he went; popon, pepton, we, ye, they went; papen, gone. See ETYM. 76.

Fealan, to fall; reoll, he fell.

Fengan, to take; peng, poh, he took; pengon, we, ye, they took. So pon and begangan, to take.

Feohtan, to fight; realite, ruhte, he fought; ruhton, we, ye, they fought.

Findan, to find; ringe, thou findest; rand, rund, -de, he found; rundon, we, ye, they found.

Fleon, to fly; pleod, we, ye, they fly; pleh, pleah, pleoh, fly, or he flew.

Fon, to take; pehre, thou takest; poh, he took.

Fonleoran, to lose; ronlyrt, heloses; ronlear, I or helost. Fpetan, to fret; ppæt, fretted; ppetan, fretted. See ETYM. 77.

Lan, or Lanzan, to go; za, zanze, I go; zæδ, he goes; zaδ, zæδ, we, ye, they go; eode, zeode, I or he went; eodan, we, ye, they went; za, go thou; za, zaδ, go ye.

Irebuzan, to bow; zebyzo, he bows; zebeah, he bowed; zebuzon, we, ye, they bowed; zebozen,

bowed. See Bizean.

Gelæccan, to seize; zelæhte, he seized; zelæhton, -ahton, we, ye, they seized; zelæhte, seized.

Gemetan, to find; zemette, he found.

Gemunan, to remember; zemune, zemunde, I or it is remembered; zemunon, -ndon, we, ye, they are remembered; zemunen, remembered.

Geotan, to pour out; zute, zeote, zeat, zet, he poured out; zutan, -ton, we, ye, they poured out.

Gerean, Gereon, to see; zerihrt, thou seest; zeriho,

he sees; zereah, I saw; zerape, -æze, thou sawest; zerap, -eah, -eh, -eaz, -az, he saw; zerapon, -an, they saw; zereoh -rih, see thou; zereoð, see ye; zeræne, -ene, -yne, -ine, zerapen, -æzen, -eozen, -eopen, -epen, seen.

Gerpingan, to whip; zerpanz, he whipped; zerpunzen,

whipped.

Letan, to get; zeate, I get; zeot, zeotte, zeate, he got; zeoton, we, ye, they got.

Gepæccan, Gepeacan, Gepæcean, to afflict; zepeahte, zepæhte, he afflicted.

Lepeophan, the same as Peophan: which see.

Giran, to give; zear, zær, or zar, I or he gave; ziren, given.

Liparan, to dig; znor, he dug; znaren, digged. See

Етум. 76.

Epinoan, to grind; zpano, -uno, he ground; zpunoon, -we, ye, they ground.

Dabban, Dæbban, to have. See Етүм. 87.

Dangan, to hang; hoh, I hung; heng, hoh, heho, he hung; hengon, we, ye, they hung; hoh, hang thou; hoo, hang ye; hangen, hung.

Dealban, to hold; heolo, I or he held; healben, holden. Debban, Dearan, to heave; hero, he heaveth; hor, hore, I or he heaved; haren, heren, hearen,

heaved.

Delpan, to help; healp, hulpe, he helped; holpen, helped.

Dlihan, to laugh; hloze, thou laughedst; hloh, he laughed; hlozun, -on, we, ye, they laughed.

Dnizan, to bow the head; hnaz, -ah, he bowed the head Don, Denzan. See Danzan.

Dpeopran, to turn; hpeaprort, thou turnest; hpupre, he turned; hpupron, we, ye, they turned. So ahpeopran.

Ican, Iecan, to eke, or enlarge; icte, ihte, I or he enlarged; icton, we, ye, they enlarged; iht, (auctus,)

enlarged.

Lipan, to sail; lab, he sailed; lipan, leopan, we, ye, they sailed.

Lixon, to shine; lixte, he shone; lixton, lixte, we, ye, they shone; and perhaps lixton, and lixton.

Mazan, to be able. See Eтум. 88.

Metan, to meet, or paint; mæt, painted; meten painted. See ETYM. 77.

Mort, I must. See ETYM. 89.

Mot, I may, can. See Eтум. 89.

Niman, to take; nimo, he takes; nom, nam, he took; numen, taken. See ETYM. 78.

Orphiccan, to oppress; orphicos, -yco, he oppresseth; orphit, -philte, he oppressed; orphilton, we, ye, they oppressed.

Ongetan, Ongeatan, -zeoton, to understand. See

Getan, and Onzitan.

Onzinnan, to begin; onzan, -un, I or he began; onzunne, thou begannest; onzunnon, -un, we, ye, they began; onzunnen, begun.

Ongitan, to understand; ongeat, he understood; ongatun, they understood; ongiten, understood.

Pæcan, to deceive, to lie; pæhte, he deceived.

Plæran, to smite; plar, he smote.

Plihtan, to plight; plihte, plat, he gave his word.

Reccan, to reckon an account; pehtert, thou reckonedst; pohte, pehte, peahte, he reckoned; pohton, they reckoned; peht reckoned.

Ridan, to ride; pic, pided, he rides; pad, he rode.

Sacan, -cian, to strive; roc, he strove.

Sahtlan, -lian, to reconcile; ræht, reconciled.

Sapan, to sow; rape, reop, I sowed; rep, reop, he sowed; rapen, sowed, sown.

Scealan, to owe. See ETYM. 88.

Sceotan, to shoot; reeat, shot; reoten, shot.

Scinan, to shine; rcean, he shone.

Scippan, to create; rceop, he created; rceapen, created.

Secan, to seek; reco, he seeks; rece, we, ye, they seek; rohte, he sought; rohten, they sought.

Seczan, Sæzzan, Sæzan, to say; rezre, thou sayest; ræczoe, ræce, he said. Perhaps from ræczoce: also proreczan, prorazan, to contradict.

Seon, to see. See Lereon.

Section, to place; rette, ret, he placed; reteo, placed.

Sigan, to fall, to fall down; rag, rah, he fell.

Singan, to sing; rong, ranc, I sang; rang, he sang; rungen, sung. See ETYM. 78.

Sittan, to sit; pæt, he sat.

Slagan, Slæan, to slay; rlea, I slay; rloh, I or he slew. Perhaps rlog, z being turned into h.

Slitan, to slit; plat, he slit.

Spinnan, to spin; rpan, he spun; rpunnen, spun. See Etym. 78.

Spipan, to spew; rpap, I or he spewed.

Standan, to stand; rtynrt, thou standest; rtent, he stands; rtod, I or he stood; rtanden, stood. See ETYM. 76.

Stigan, to climb; rtag, rtah, rtih, he climbed.

Strectan, to stretch; repeate, he stretched; repeaten, they stretched.

Spealtan, Spyltan, to die; ppelte, I die; ppealt, ppeolt, he died.

Spepian, -pan, -pizan, to swear; ppop, I or he swore. Spizan, Spuzon, to be silent; ppizode, I was silent; ppizode, rupode, rup, he was silent; rupon, they were silent.

Tæcan, to teach; tæhte, he taught; tæc, teach.

Teon, Teogan, to draw or accuse; teo, I draw; teoho, tyho, he draws; teh, tuze, he drew; teo, teoh, draw thou.

Tepan, to tear; tæp, tore; topen, torn. See Etym. 77. Dean, -on, to profit; beah, bax, bah, he profited.

Deapran, to behove; beapr, I have need; beapre, bupre, thou hast need; bopree, he has need; bupron, we, ye, they have need.

Dencan, -ean, to think; Sohr, Sohre; he thought; So Lebencan.

Dpean, to wash; ppea, I wash; ppyhre, thou washest; ppeho, he washes; ppoh, I or he washed.

Typian, -izean, to give; typoe, tipode, tydoe, he gave.

Unnan, to give; uppe, udde, he gave.

Pacian, to wake; pacode, I or he waked; peaht, wakened.

Pacran, to wash; peocr, peohr, he washed; poxon,

we, ye, they washed.

Pedan, to be mad; pet, he is mad; pedde, he was mad. Peophan, to be. See ETYM. 86.

Peran, to be. See ETYM. 86.

Pindan, to wind; pint, he winds; pand, pond, he wound; punden, wound.

Pincan, Peoncan, Poncan, to work, to build; ponte, he worked, built; ponte, worked.

Pitan, to know; pat, I know, he knows, or I or he knew; part, thou knowest or knewest; piten, pitoo, known.

Ppezan, to accuse; ppehte, -дое, he accused. Ppeon, Ppyon, to cover; ppoh, ppeah, he covered. Pyllan, to will or wish. See Етүм. 88.

Ypnan, Apnian, Apnan, to run; apn, upn, he ran; upnon, they ran.

# CHAPTER VI.

# THE Adverb, Preposition, Conjunction and Interjection.

93. An Adverb is a part of speech, joined to verbs, adjectives, or other adverbs, to denote some quality or circumstance respecting them: as, Pirelice ic rpnece, I speak wisely; Dipenon to lange, they were too long.

Many adverbs admit of comparison, especially those which end in -e or -lice. The comparative is formed by changing the last vowel into -op, and the superlative into -op: as, Rihtlice, justly; Rihtlicop, more justly; Rihtlicopt, most justly.

94. A Preposition connects words with one another, and shows the relation between them: as, Luça Dpỳhten binne Lob on ealne binne heoptan, Love the Lord thy God in all thine heart. Matt. xxii. 37.

95. Conjunctions connect words and sentences together: as, De reent I rppeco, He stands and speaks. Elf. Gr. Sapl I licchoma pyncao anne mon, The

soul and body make one man. Boet. 85. 9.

96. An Interjection expresses any sudden emotion of the mind: as, ya if me, Woe is me! Cala bnoben Cczbynht. cala hpæt bybert bu; O brother Egbert! O what didst thou!—Bede.

### CHAPTER VII.

## THE FORMATION OF WORDS.

1. A knowledge of things is conveyed to the mind through the medium of the five senses, but chiefly by the sight. An idea, or image of a visible object is formed in the mind by means of the eye; and the word, which, when written or spoken, conveys this image to the mind, is called a Noun. It is most probable that the general outline, or form of an object, would be impressed on the mind before any particular part or action of the object. Nouns, therefore, appear to be the primitive words in language. Those nouns pronounced by a single impulse of the voice, and therefore called monosyllables, were first formed.

Ac an oak. Pep a man. Mod the mind.

Compound nouns were formed from these primitive words, and consist of two or more independent and significant words; as,

Ac, an oak,	copn, a corn, { Accopn, a corn of the oak, an acorn.
pep, a man,	heopo, an herd, Pepheopo, an herdsman.
Mod, the mind,	here, heat, Moohere, heat of mind, anger.
Pin, wine,	tpeop, tree, pintpeop, a vine.
Æ, water, æer or ær, water's or of water,	land, land, {Erland, a water's land, or land of water, an island.

Other compound nouns are formed by terminating syllables; as,

Cýnedom, a king's right, -bom, judgment, right, Lyne, a king, a kingdom. Birceop, a bishop, -pic, dominion, Birceoppic, bishopric. Lilo, a child, -hade, office, state, Lilbhabe, childhood. Preort, a priest, -reipe, a shire, share, Ppeortroype, a parish. Deopling, a darling, or -ling, a diminutive, Deon, a dear, little dear. Feonmen, a food-man, Feonm, food, -ep, a man, or a man who farms. Sanzirche, a song wo--irthe, a woman, Sanz, a song, man, a songstress.

2. Verbs appear to be derived from Nouns. Every Noun, or thing which has an existence, must have either an action, or a state of being, and the word which expresses that action, or state of being, is denominated a Verb. After the general outline of an object was formed in the mind, the attention would be fixed upon its action, or state of being; and therefore Verbs were formed subsequently to Nouns. This reasoning is corroborated by the structure of several languages.

Verbs are often nouns applied in a verbal sense without any alteration of form. This often happens in

Hebrew; as,

הב děb, a bear, ב děb, he acts as a bear, he murmurs, or grumbles. nēr, a river, והדר nēr, it acts as a river, or flows.

And in modern English; as, a fear, to fear; a sleep, to sleep; a dream, to dream. In Anglo-Saxon a few verbs are found in this primitive state.

Mæz, power,
Mot, an assembly,
Teon, an accusation,

Mæz, may.
Mot, to be able, to assemble.
Teon, to accuse.

That verbs are derived from nouns, admits of ample proof from most ancient languages: as, in Hebrew,

א ar, a river, fows, away, or destroys.
אור ap, heat, anger, apen ape, it acts as heat, it bakes.

In Greek, verbs are also formed from nouns; as,

 $\Sigma$ alos, the sea,  $\Sigma$ aleuw, sea I, I act as the sea, I agitate.  $\Psi$ uxq, a soul,  $\Psi$ uxow, soul I, I act as a soul, I enliven.

The greatest part of Saxon verbs are formed from nouns by the addition of the syllables -an, -1an, or -zan, probably formed from

Anan, or an, to give, to add, anend, giving, &c.
Langan, or zan, to go,
Azan, to possess, to have,
Zangan, or zan, to go,
zangan, going,
zangad, gone.
zangad, had.

These terminations, added to nouns, give them a verbal signification; as,

Dæl\* a part,
Feopm, food,
Feyen, a fever,
Pic, knowledge,
Pælan, to give a part, to divide.
Feopmian, to have food, to feed or farm.
Feyenzan, to have a fever.
Pican, to give knowledge, to know.

In a subsequent stage, two distinct verbs were sometimes condensed into one; as,

Gan, to go,
 Fanan, to go,
 Fanan, to go,
 Fopheodan, to bid to go, to depart.

An unaltered noun and verb are sometimes united; as,

Pirt, a feast, pyllan, to fill, Pirtpullian, to banquet.

3. Adjectives are formed from the two preceding classes of words; they are either nouns or verbs formed into adjectives by various processes.

Some nouns are used as adjectives without any alteration; as,

Deop, the deep, the sea, Deop, deep. La's, evil, La's, pernicious.

<sup>\*</sup> It is the same in the Mœso-Gothic, a sister language of the Anglo-Saxon,

AAIA, a part, VITI, knowledge, VITAN, to give a part, to divide.

Genuine adjectives are formed by adding to nouns and verbs the terminating syllables -an, -en, -ed, -end, -iz, -irc: these are probably derived from An and Ican, to give, to add, to join; as,

```
ρ Æycen, ash, add something, as,
Ærc, an ash,
                   -en, add,
                                 ercen theop, an ash-tree.
                                   Linen, flaxen.
Gold, gold,
                    -en, add,
Lin, flax,
                   -en, add,
Blod, blood,
                   -17, join,
                                   Blodiz, bloody.
Vic, wisdom,
                   -17, join,
                                   Piciz, wise, witty.
Drincan, to drink, -end, join,
                                   Drinceno, drinking.
```

Adjectives are formed from nouns and verbs by the addition of other syllables; as,

```
-lic, like,
pep, a man,
                                        pepli man-like, manly.
Lure, love,
                                        Lurlic, love-like, amiable.
                    -lic, like,
                    -cyme, teem,
                                        Lureryme, pleasant.
Lure, love,
Luriend, loving,
                    -lic, like,
                                        Luriendlic, amiable.
                    -rum, some, part, Pinrum, some pleasure, joyful.
Pynne, pleasure,
                                        Pypcyum, laborious.
Pypcan, to work,
                    -rum, some,
Tung, tongue,
                    -rull, plenty,
                                        Tunzrull, loquacious.
pæ<sub>j</sub>cm, fruit,
                    -bæp, producing,
                                        pærcmbæn, fruitful.
Loo, God,
                    -cund, born,
                                        Lodcund, Divine,
                    -rært, fast, fixed,
                                        Æpært, fixed in the law. pious.
Æ, a law,
Fæoen, father,
                    -lear, lost, less,
                                        Fædeplear, fatherless.
Epen, even, equal, -ece, eternal,
                                        Erenece, co-eternal.
```

The Comparative terminations -on, -an, -en, and, by transposition, -ne, are from An or Pen, before, in regard to time, and then to quality; and the Superlative -arc, -erc, -orc, &c., are from Arc, Perc, first; as,

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The state of the s
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Those adjectives, which are now considered irregular in modern English, were once formed by the preceding rule; as,

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Bet, good, Bet-epe, better, Bet-yt, best. poep-ey, pypy, worse, Oze-pe, more, Oze-yt, most.
```

4. Pronouns are thought to be formed from the fragments of verbs and nouns.

The pronouns De, heo, hit, he, and re, may perhaps have their origin from the verb

Datan, hætan, to call, to say; he, heo, called, said, he; hýt, i. e. hæ-ed, hæ-et, hæt, hit, said, it.

Dean, to grow forth, say; ha, he, heo, hy, said, who, the; ha-eo, hæ, said, that.

Sæzan, to say; re, reo, said, the.

5. Adverbs are formed by constantly using nouns in certain cases, or from verbs; as,

Dpilum, awhile, now, the dative case of hpile, a moment, time.

Dancer, freely, gratis; the genitive case of panc, a thank, favour.

Liet, yet, the imperative of zeran, to get.

Lang, long, from langan, to prolong.

6. Prepositions and Conjunctions are generally formed from verbs; as,

Fremanz, among, from zemenzan, to mix. Piputon, without, from pipputan, peophan, to be out. Eac, also, and, from eacan, to add.

Lif, if, from zifan, to give.

The following inseparable prepositions are much used in the formation of Saxon words.

And, in composition, signifies to or back: as, Andreandan, to stand back, or resist.

Et, again, back again: as, Et-cenning, regeneration. Epen, equal, just, alike: as, Epen-ealt, coeval.

Ert, again, back again: as, Ert-azyran, to restore.

Em, about: as, Em-bon, to compass about.

Fon, by, for, from, &c.: as, Fon-bæpan, to restrain.

Fone, before: as, Fone-bænan, to carry before. Mir, an error, &c.: as, Mir-bon, to be done badly.

Op, in, from, im: as, Op-zyloe, without price. Os, off, from: as, Op-bæpptan, to break off.

Un, in, not, un: as, Un-cuo, unknown, uncouth. Pipep, against: as, Pipep-reczan, to speak against.

An acquaintance with the composition of words will greatly facilitate the acquisition of a language; for, by combining one radical term with prepositions and other parts of speech, many words are formed which retain the signification of their simple parts. The recollection of the radical words will be sufficient to bring to the mind the numerous derivatives, and will most deeply impress on the memory the precise signification of many words, which otherwise could be scarcely ascertained. Thus reandan, to stand, compounded with the preposition agen or ongean, becomes Agen-reandan, to stand against, or to oppose; And-rtandan, to stand back, or resist; Op-rtandan, to stand off, or to tarry behind; Unden-reandan, to stand under, or to bear: applied to the mind, to know, or to UNDERSTAND; Pip-rcandan, to WITH-STAND, or to oppose.

The Anglo-Saxons, like other Gothic nations, were remarkable for combining several short significant words to express any complex idea. Instead of adopting technical terms from other languages, it was their usual practice to translate them by a simple combination of the radical words, taken from their own nervous language. Hence, for the word Grammar, the Saxons used the expressive term Boccpæft, book-craft, composed of boc, a book, and cpæft, craft. Tunzolcpæftiz, star-crafty, or an astronomer, which word we have adopted from the Greek aurgor, a star, and vouos, a law, rule. Pinbepia, a wine-berry, a grape, &c. Their own words were formed in the same manner: thus Stapolpæftan, to confirm or fix firmly, is composed of rapol, a foundation, pæft, fast, and an, to give.

## PART III.

## SYNTAX.

## CHAPTER I. THE CONSTRUCTION OF SENTENCES.

1. Syntax (from συνταξις, composition) teaches the composition, order, agreement, and government of words in a sentence.

2. A sentence, expressing a perfect thought, is distinguished at the end by a full stop, marked thus (: or 7).

3. A simple sentence has in it but one nominative case and one finite verb, either expressed or understood; as, Pilniza men annealoer: Men desire power.

Die poloon habban hligan: They might have fame.

4. A compound sentence consists of two or more simple sentences connected by relatives or conjunctions; as, Pilniza's men annealoe; DE hie poloon habban hliran: Men desire power, that they might have fame. Boet. 38.4.

5. Instead of our comma, semicolon, and colon, the Anglo-Saxons only used one point, thus (.) which merely

denoted the sense to be imperfect.

6. The Anglo-Saxon, having inflected terminations, is in some measure a transpositive language; but it by no means admits of such liberty in placing the words in a sentence as in Latin and Greek.

The following remarks on the collocation of words may be of use to the young student.

The nominative case is usually placed before the verb.

The participle is sometimes found at a distance from the neuter verb, and often at the close of the sentence.

Negatives, adverbs, &c., are for the most part placed before the verb.

The verb often follows the accusative, as well as the nominative case; the verb will, therefore, often be the

last word in a Saxon as well as in a German or Latin sentence; as, Dluteppa pella pætep hi opuncon: They drank the water of pure springs. Boet. 30. 8.

#### CHAPTER II.

- 7. Syntax consists of two parts:
  - 1. Concord. 2. Government.
- 8. Concord is the agreement of one word with another, in case, gender, number, or person.
- 9. Government is when one word requires another to be in a particular case or mood.

#### THE CONCORDS.

10. There are three concords.

#### THE FIRST CONCORD.

11. The first concord is between the nominative case and the verb.

The verb must be of the same number and person as the nominative case; as, Se piroom zeded hir luriendar pire: Wisdom maketh his lovers wise. Boet. 60. 10.

- 12. A noun of multitude may have a verb of the singular or plural number; as, Gall & pole anay I prodon: All the people (surgebat) arose and (stabant) stood. Exod. xxxiii. 8.
- 13. Two or more nominative cases singular will have a verb plural; as, Ic J Fæden rynt an: I and the Father are one. John x. 30.

#### THE SECOND CONCORD.

14. The second concord is between the substantive and the adjective.

The adjective or participle is always of the same number, case, and gender as the noun. Da nyhr æbelo bis on ham mode: The right nobility is in the mind. Boet. 67. 22.

#### THE THIRD CONCORD.

15. The third concord is between the relative and the antecedent.

The relative agrees with its antecedent in gender, number, and person. Its case depends upon some other word in the sentence. Ne pyncead ærren ham mere he roppynd: Labour not after the meat which perisheth. John vi. 27.

- 16. Se, yeo, heo, hat, are often used as relatives; as, Enear ye, Eneas who: and Sum pig yeo hæyde, a certain woman who had. Luke xiii. 11.
- 17. De, together with an article or pronoun, sometimes stands for who; as, Se man re be, the man who: Ic eom Gabriel, ic be reande, I am Gabriel, who stand. Luke i. 19.
- 18. De, like the English word the, is set before nouns in all cases; as, Du mæz he læce hælan he pund, how can the physician heal the wound. Bede.

## CHAPTER III. OF GOVERNMENT.

# Government of Nouns.

19. One substantive governs another, signifying a different thing, in the genitive case; as, Đỳr ỳr Iudea cỳning: This is king of the Jews. Luke xxiii. 38.

20. But nouns signifying the same thing are put in the same case; as, Elpheo Kuning pær pealhytod diffe bec: King Alfred was translator of this book. Boet. Præf. xi.

21. A noun signifying praise or blame is put in the genitive case; as, Dir role ir heapoer moder: This

people is of hard mind. Exod. xxxii. 9.

22. The genitive case is sometimes put alone, the former noun being understood; as, De zereh Iacobum Zebede: He saw James the son of Zebedee. (Sunu, the son, is understood.) Matt. iv. 21.

23. Words which express measure, weight, age, &c. are put in the genitive case: as, Bpecton 17 eahta hund mila lang: Britain is eight hundred miles long. Bede 473. 11.

24. Nouns signifying the cause or manner of a thing, or the instrument by which it is done, are put in the dative case: as, D1 rppæcao nipum cungum: They

spoke with new tongues. Mark xvi. 17.

25. Nouns signifying part of time, or answering the question when, are put in the genitive case; but how long, in the accusative or dative case: as, Dæzer J nihter (die et nocte). By day and night. Gen. xxxi. 40. Dpi rtande ze hen ealne dæz idele: Why stand ye here all day idle? Matt. xx. 6.

26. Nouns ending in rull and lice, and words compounded with eren, ern, or emn, and the noun beaut, need, govern a dative case: as, Eren-læcan bam aportolum: To be like the apostles. Wanl. Cat. p. 5. 1.

27. A noun with a participle, or two nouns with the word being understood between them, governed by no other word in the sentence, are put in the dative case, sometimes called the dative absolute. Gebigeoum cneopum: Knees being bent (with bended knees). Mark. i. 40.

#### THE GOVERNMENT OF ADJECTIVES.

28. Superlatives, partitives, numeral adjectives, the relative Dpa, who, and adjectives in the neuter gender without a substantive, generally govern the genitive case: as, Dpæt yreler byde he: What evil (what of evil) did he? Mark xv. 14.

29. Than after the comparative degree is made by bonne, pænne, and sometimes be: as, he rynt relpan bonne maneza rpeappan: Ye are better than many

sparrows. Matt. x. 31.

When the words ponne, pænne, or pe, are omitted after a comparative, the following word is put in the genitive or dative case: as, he rynt becenan manegum

rpeappum: Ye are better than many sparrows. Luke xii. 7.

30. Adjectives denoting plenty, want, likeness, dignity, worth, fulness, care or desire, knowledge, ignorance, also the substantive pana want, have sometimes a dative and sometimes a genitive case after them: as, Se Dæleno pær rull halgum garte: The Saviour was full of the (to the) Holy Ghost. Luke iv. 1.

31. The interrogative, and the word that answers to it, must be in the same case: as, Dpær anlicnyr yr pir. pær Larerer: Whose likeness is this? Cæsar's.

Matt. xxii. 20.

#### THE GOVERNMENT OF VERBS.

32. The neuter verb, and verbs of naming, have the same case after as before them: as, Da pær rum conrul. pær pe Deperoha harað: There was a certain consul that we name a Heretoha\*. Boet. 2. 1.

- 33. Verbs of trying, following, depriving, of wanting, enjoying, visiting, doing, expecting, listening, recalling, accusing, ceasing, asking, pitying, pealoan to govern or command, &c. and sometimes the verb neuter, have after them a genitive case: as, Ne pilna bu biner nehtran hurer: Wish not thou thy neighbour's house. Exod. xx. 17.
- 34. Verbs of depriving, giving, and restoring, commanding, obeying, serving, reproving, accusing, forbidding, telling, answering, believing, thanking, &c. also the words rilian or rylizean, to follow, &c. with all verbs put acquisitively, govern the dative case: as, Dod pel pam be eop yrlods: Do well to those that do evil to you. Matt. v. 44.

35. Active verbs govern the accusative case: as, Dirne mann ic lurize: I love this man. Ælf. Gram. 6.

36. Verbs of asking, teaching, and clothing, govern the accusative of the person and thing: as, Dyne ax-

<sup>\*</sup> From hepe an army, and teon to lead.

ooon p bigrpell: Him they asked that parable. Mark iv. 10.

37. When two verbs come together, the latter is put in the infinitive mood: as, ye pillad zereon: We wish to see, or We would see. Matt. xii. 38.

38. The infinitive mood will have an accusative case before it: as, Spa ze zereod me habban: As ye see me have. Luke xxiv. 39.

#### PREPOSITIONS.

39. Prepositions govern the genitive, dative, or accusative case, as specified in the following alphabetical arrangement:

bicei, bout, around,	acc l	Cond, see Bezeond.			
Ærtep, after,	dat	Fop, for, dat. acc.			
Æp, ere, before,	det.				
Ast, at,	dat.	Fpan, from, by, gen. dat. acc.			
Ærronan, before,		Lehend, at hand, near, dat.			
Azen, -ean, against,		Gemanz, among, dat. acc.			
Amanz, among,	dat.	Leond, see Bezeond.			
	RCC.	Innan, in, into, gen. dat. acc.			
Bærtan, see Be-ærtan.		Inco, in, into, dat.			
Be, bi, big, by, of, after,	dat.	Oro, with, gen. dat.			
		Neah, near, dat.			
Be-ærtan, behind, after,	dat.	Neah, near, dat. Op, of, from, gen. dat. acc.			
Beropan, before, dat.	arc.	Oren, over, dat. acc.			
Begeond,	wcc.	Oren, over, dat. acc. On, into, to, dat acc.			
hezeondan .		Onblone see Toblene			
bezeonoan, beyond,	acc.	Onropan, before, dat.			
zeono,		Onzeau, -zen, against, acc.			
Beheonan, on this side,	date:	Oninnan, in, dat.			
D.	uat.				
B. See Be.		Onmanz, among, dat.			
Bi, see Be.					
necycux,		On-upan, upon, dat.			
betwixt,					
betryx, between, dat.	acc.	O's, to, until, dat. acc.			
betpih, among,		Sippan, -on, after, acc.			
necheonan,		ren, agamst, acc			
berpinan, J	1.4	Duph, through, by, acc.			
Binnan, -on, within,	dat.	Til, to, until, dat.			
Buran, -on, above,	dat.	To, to, for, gen. dat. acc.			
Butan, -on, without, beside, dat.	acc.	Toropan, before, dat.			
Emb, embucan, jmb, ymbucan, about,	acc.	Togeane, -ner, against, dat. acc. Tomiober, among, gen. dat.			
ymo, ymoucan, J					
<b>F</b> 2					

Topeano, toward,	gen. dat.	Pipærtan, after,	acc.
Unden, under,	dat. acc.	Pipropan, before,	acc.
Unreop, near,		Pipzeondan, about,	acc.
Up, uppe, 7 im amon dot and		acc.	
Up, uppe, up, upon, dat.		Pipinnan, within, Pipucan, without,	acc.
Utan, -on, without, gen	.dat.acc.	Ymb, ymbutan, see Emb,	em-
Pid, with, against, gen	. dat. acc.	butan.	

40. Prepositions are sometimes separated from the words which they govern: they are then emphatically placed before the verb in the sentence: as, Da englar pupoon apende or pam pæzepan hipe DE hi ON zerceapene pæpon: (Instead of on pe.) The angels were changed from that beautiful form in which they were created. Ælf. Hom.

#### CONJUNCTIONS.

- 41. Conjunctions join like cases, moods, and tenses: as, Lerceop Loo heorenan and eoppan: God created heaven and earth. Gen. i. 1.
- 42. Some conjunctions expressing doubt, or contingency, as beah, though, ppilce, as if, bæt, that, hpæben, whether, zir, if, ram, whether, &c. are said to require the subjunctive mood: as, Dpæt do ic. bæt ic ece lir age: What shall I do, that I may obtain eternal life? Mark x. 17.
- 43. It often happens that these and other conjunctions have a verb following them in the indicative mood: as, Dpæpen if eppe to reczenne: Whether is easier to say. Mark ii. 9.

#### INTERJECTIONS.

44. Interjections have a nominative or an accusative case after them: as, La bu liccetene: O thou hypocrite! Matt. vii. 5. Cala licetene: O hypocrite! Luke vi. 42.

# PART IV.

## PROSODY.

The Northern tongues abound in consonants. The first efforts therefore of a Gothic poet, in endeavouring to reduce his language to harmony, would be the placing of these consonants at such a distance from each other, and so intermixing them with vowels, as from their structure to produce a sort of rhythm. This must be effected by a periodical repetition of emphatic syllables, rendered still more perceptible to the ear by a recurrence of the same letters in these emphatic syllables. Hence the general construction of Anglo-Saxon versification will be understood by attending to a few remarks on three of its most evident properties: namely, 1. Alliteration; 2. Emphasis; and 3. Rhythm.

1. Alliteration is the beginning of several syllables, in the same or corresponding verse, with the same letter. The Anglo-Saxons were more partial to the recurrence of consonants than vowels, and were usually studious to throw the alliteration on the emphatic syllables. Their most regular alliteration\* was thus constituted: In two adjacent and connected lines of verse, there must be three words or syllables which begin with one and the same letter. The third or last alliterative word generally stands the first word in the second line, and the two first alliterative words must be both introduced in the first line. The most important alliterative letter is found in the word placed in the second line: this letter is therefore called the *Chief letter*; according to which the two

<sup>\*</sup> The author is much indebted for these and other remarks to an admirable little work by Professor Rask of Copenhagen, called "Angelsaksisk Sproglære tilligemed en kort Læsebog." Stockholm, 1817, 8vo.

PROSODY.

other letters, that are called Assistant letters, must be arranged in the first line. For example, in Beowulf, ii. 27:

Da wær ærten wirte There was after meal-time Wop up-a-haren. A whoop set up.

Here the three words war, wire, and wop contain the alliterative letters: of these the w in wop is the Chief letter, and the two others are Assistants. If the Chief letter be a vowel, the Assistants must be vowels, but yet they need not be the same: as,

Eocenar and ylpe
And openear Beowulf, i. 12.

Here o in openear is the Chief letter, and eo and y are the Assistants;—all three quite different.

The alliterative letters must always be found in words which have an emphasis on the syllable which begins with them; but an unemphatic derivative syllable, ze-, be-, a-, &c., may stand first in the same word, without interrupting the alliteration. In the same two congruent lines there must not be more than three words which begin in this manner: but an unemphatic syllable prefixed is not considered as presenting any obstacle; nor does the Chief letter necessarily stand the very first in the second line. It is frequently preceded by one or more particles; not such, however, as have an emphasis in reading. These prefixes constitute what may be denominated a *Metrical complement*. In short verses, only one Assistant letter is occasionally found, especially if the Chief be a compound: as, rc, rt, rp: then the Assistant also ought to be a compound, which would be productive of a harsh sound, and would be difficult to effect in three words so contiguous to each other.

It will be necessary to remark, that it was only the most cultivated and laboured poetry which had the alliteration thus regularly constituted. In general our ancestors appear to have been satisfied, if their verse had

rhythm enough to be sung, and such alliteration as would at once strike the ear.

2. EMPHASIS is a perceptible stress of the voice laid upon a syllable or word; it is, therefore, properly divided into syllabic emphasis, generally, but improperly, termed accent; and verbal or sentential emphasis, commonly denominated merely emphasis.

Syllabic emphasis, which in Saxon and all the modern languages of Gothic origin holds the place of the Roman and Greek quantity, is the superior energy with which at least one syllable of a word is enunciated: as the first in zoonyrre (goodness), and the last in berpyx (betwixt).

Those words which the present English have taken directly from their Saxon ancestors, very probably had the same syllabic emphasis which we now give them. It has also been asserted, that in Saxon the emphasis was undoubtedly on the first, or chief syllable of the root in every word; and therefore the prefixed particles ze-, a-, be-, &c. never have the emphasis. Compound words which consist of two substantives have the emphasis on the former syllable. In compounds of two essential significant words the emphasis commonly falls on the former word.

3. Rhythm. Several emphatic syllables cannot be conveniently enunciated in succession; there must be a syllable or two remiss or feeble after an emphasis. On these depends Rhythm, which may be defined to be

periodical emphasis and remission.

The length of lines in verse is not so accurately defined in Saxon by rhythm, as in Latin by means of feet: the only thing which, in Anglo-Saxon, has any influence over metre, seems to be the *emphatic syllables*. Each of these is often accompanied by one, two, or more unemphatic syllables. These emphatic and unemphatic syllables do not appear to be arranged according to any rules, except those which are dictated by the ear and cadence of the verse; but two or more accented syllables

seldom occur alone, without being accompanied by some unaccented. The metrical complement, which stands before the first Assistant letter in the first line, is not to be reckoned with the proper measure of Saxon verse. It is regarded merely as a species of prelude or overture, which is gone over as hastily as possible. This holds good, at least, respecting the construction of that species of verse of which we have hitherto seen examples, and which seems to be the only one which is given in Anglo-Saxon poetry. This will be illustrated by a short example:

Mentoo ana pat.
 (Dryoen reo) rápul scéal.
 Syphan hpeónran.
 (And) eálle ha gártar

5. (De ron) gooe hpeonrad. (Ærren) dead dæze.

7. Dómer híoað. (On) fæðen fæþme. The Creator alone knows
Whither the soul
Shall afterwards roam,
And all the spirits
That depart in God.
After their death-day
They will abide their judgement
In their Father's bosom.

See Hickes's Thesaurus, vol. i. p. 208.

In the second line we find first hpyden reo, as the metrical complement; next the two words rapul scéal, which make three syllables, of which only the first and last are emphatic: the middle one, ul, is unemphatic, and only serves to facilitate the connexion between the em-The third line has no metrical comphatic syllables. plement, but immediately begins with an emphatic syllable; and then follows one unemphatic, then an emphatic with an unemphatic syllable: and thus this line contains two emphatic syllables. The fourth has no proper metrical complement, because there is only an auxiliary letter; except we give this name to what, in such cases, precedes the first accented syllable: but whatever be the name by which it is called, it is evident that And is the prelude, and that the verse first properly begins with ealle ba, which is one emphatic and two unemphatic; then follows zártar, one emphatic and one unemphatic: so this has also two emphatic syllables. The fifth has De ron for a metrical complement; the remainder is formed as the third. In the sixth, Excep is the metrical complement: then follow two emphatic syllables. the last of which is accompanied by one unemphatic, which is the reverse of the construction of the second line. The seventh is formed just as the third. It appears then, that however unlike these lines seem to be in their structure, still they are all formed after one rule; viz. they have all two emphatic syllables, which should be generally followed by at least one unemphatic syllable. besides the metrical complement, which at pleasure may be introduced or omitted. The lines, therefore, commonly consist of four syllables; but sometimes of five, when one emphatic syllable is followed by two unemphatic; and sometimes of three syllables, when one of the emphatic syllables is not followed by an unemphatic. A line of even two syllables is sometimes found; but if both these were strongly emphatic, the verse would not offend against the general rhythm.

From the observations which have been made, we see that the Anglo-Saxons had a peculiar metre: the system, in fact, is something similar to that of our old ballads. in which the ear is satisfied, not by the number of syllables, but by the recurrence of the emphasis. Coleridge, in the seventh page of his Preface to his Christabel, has the following remarks on the structure of such verse. "The metre of the *Christabel* is not, properly speaking, irregular, though it may seem so from its being founded on a new (old) principle: namely, that of counting in each line the accents, not the syllables. Though the latter may vary from seven to twelve, yet in each line the accents will be found to be only four." The English reader will have a clear view of the principle observed in Anglo-Saxon versification, if he will add to Mr. Coleridge's remarks what has been previously said on Alliteration; namely, that our ancestors appear to have been satisfied, if their verse had rhythm enough to be sung, and such alliteration as would at once strike the ear.

## PART V.

## DIALECTS.

Observations on the Saxon language, and its dialects; or the manner in which the present English is formed from the Saxon.

1. The Anglo-Saxons \* came from different provinces of Germany into Britain, and were composed of Saxons, Angles, Frisians, and Jutes; it is therefore probable some variety existed in the pronunciation of their words: but as they were incorporated together, and united under a regal government in Britain before the chief æra of literature began, and as what was previously written is probably conveyed to us in the more recent orthography, it is most likely that one form of the language would prevail. This was denominated Anglo-Saxon; and it was used by the majority of the inhabitants in England, on the establishment of the Saxon power in A.D. 457, and continued for four centuries and a half, till A.D. 900, or perhaps till the reign of Athelstan + A.D. 924: but pure Saxon may be found, which was probably written even after the latter period.

We may, however, confidently look to the Laws of the Saxon monarchs, Charters, and Chronicle, before the time of Athelstan; to the works of King Alfred, to the Heptateuch, Gospels, and the Gospel of Nicodemus,

for Anglo-Saxon in its greatest state of purity.

2. It may be readily allowed, that one form of the Anglo-Saxon language might prevail for a considerable time in England; but our ancestors, having few opportunities of literary intercourse, could not have determined upon fixed rules for orthography: hence arose the difference observable in spelling the same words in Saxon;

<sup>\*</sup> For a brief history of the Anglo-Saxons, and the origin of the term Anglo-Saxon, see Preface, page i—iii.
† See Turner's History of the Anglo-Saxons, 8vo, vol. i. p. 594.

and, from communication with foreigners, an alteration in the modification of words, with an introduction of new terms. This alteration is said to be perceptible at two periods of the Saxon language. The Anglo-Saxon is, therefore, considered as having two dialects, called the *Dano-Saxon*, and the *Norman-Saxon*; according to the time when the Danes and Normans entered, and prevailed in this island.

- 3. The Dano-Saxon.—The peculiarities of the Danish tongue would predominate in proportion as the Danes increased their power and authority in England. During the reign of Danish kings in this nation, from A.D. 1016 to 1042, their Northern dialect would generally prevail: as the Danes were numerous in this island, it would also have some influence for a considerable time before their kings ascended the throne, and would continue after they had ceased to reign in England. Though, from the gradual change observable in languages, no specific time can be given for the actual commencement or termination of the Dano-Saxon dialect, yet we may presume it would have more or less influence for nearly two centuries,—probably from about A.D. 900 to near 1070 or 1100.
- 4. The Norman-Saxon.—The Normans had some intercourse with England, even from the accession of Edward the Confessor, in A.D. 1042; but as they were not much mixed with the Saxon population, the Norman-French could have little influence over the Saxon language till after the time of the Conquest. The laws, being administered by the Norman Conqueror in his own language, would naturally introduce many new words; and the mutual efforts of the Normans and Saxons to understand each other would make an alteration in both languages: but as the majority of the inhabitants were Saxons, it is reasonable to presume that the Saxon language predominated; while the Norman tongue would have influence enough to change the modification of the Saxon words, and perhaps would cause

the inhabitants to reject or alter some of the variable terminations which were left in the Dano-Saxon dialect. Though no precise time can be fixed for the exact origin and conclusion of the Norman-Saxon, it may be affirmed that it succeeded the Dano-Saxon, and probably prevailed for nearly two centuries; or from about 1070 to 1260, in the reign of Henry III. What was written after the latter period is so different from Anglo-Saxon, and so nearly allied to our present language, that without any impropriety it may be denominated English.

5. It may, however, be here noticed, that those changes in Saxon which are generally denominated Dialects, appear in reality only to be the alteration observed in the progress of the language as it gradually flowed from the Anglo-Saxon, varying or casting off many of its inflections, till it settled in the form of the present English; in the same manner as, upon the fall of the Roman Empire, those people who derived their languages from the Latin, finding that the relation of words could be expressed with greater facility by prepositions, tacitly, and almost universally, rejected many of the variable terminations.

6. The progressive transformation of the Anglo-Saxon into our present form of speech will be seen by attend-

ing to the following remarks.

7. After A.D. 900, some old Icelandic words were introduced by the Danes; and many of the inhabitants of this island, from intercourse with these foreigners, began to disregard the improved state of the Anglo-Saxon tongue, and either altered or omitted many of the terminating syllables.

8. One letter was often changed for another, and all the vowels were interchanged: as, am, for eom or eam, am; hpar for hpær, what; one \* for ane, one. The consonant b was often used instead of o; as, moeben or moben, for moden, a mother: k for c; as, king for cyng or cyng, a king.

<sup>\*</sup> Like the Gothic AINA, or the old Icelandic III.

9. Letters sometimes changed place: as, hipoa or hipo, for hipotoa, third; phi or phy, for hip, why; prort, for popt, a frost.

10. Two syllables were contracted into one: as, king

or cynz, for cyning, a king.

11. The letter n was often omitted at the end of words, and before another consonant: as, hir noma or name, for hyr naman, his name; rel me oninca or onink, for ryle me onincan, give me drink; cyniz or king, for cyning, a king; berona or berone, for beronan, before; pealo, for pealoan +, to wield.

12. The termination of the dative case -um was often omitted, and supplied by the preposition to: as, Da cpæð to leopnepar hir, Then he saith to his disciples. Matt. ix. 37; instead of Da cpæð leopnepum hir, or in genuine Saxon, Da he ræde hir leopning-cnihtum.

13. About A.D. 1070 further alterations were made in the Anglo-Saxon, and it approached still nearer to the form of the present English, by omitting more of the

terminating syllables.

14. The same interchange of vowels, as previously mentioned, was common, particularly e for a, in the nominative plural: as, rmiper or rmipr, for rmipar, smiths; roxer for roxar, foxes; rconer, for rconar, stones.

15. The letter z was changed into 1 or y in the beginning, middle, and end of words: as, 1unze or yunze, for zeonze, young; peinar or painr, for peznar, rains; yeap, for zeap, a year; days; dei or day, for dez, a day; thenty, for thentix, twenty; mai or may, for mæz, may; ani, for anix, any.

16. The letter r was often changed into u, which was sounded like v before a vowel; but r before an m was changed into m: as, haue t, for hare', have; luue or loue (pronounced love), for lure, love; reouen or

<sup>\*</sup> As the Gothic OA. † As the Gothic YAAAAN.

† Like the Gothic hABA, or the old Icelandic \* ABA or \*APA.

reuen (pronounced seven), for reoron, seven; pimman, for pirman, a woman.

17. E was changed into ch, o into p or o: as, chilo, for cilo, a child; cherten, for cearten, a city; chear or char, for cear, chaff; hipen, for hiden, hither.

18. The acute accent, which was placed over the vowels by the Saxons to denote their long sound, was discontinued, and its place supplied by final letters: hence has arisen an extensive list of English words ending in duplicate consonants and e final\*: as, lip, life; pip, a wife; hal, hale; clip, a cliff; pcip, a shire; hoc (boke), a book; zoo (gode), good; pran, a stone; pap, a sore; pral, a stall; plim, slime; pmal, small; zop, a goose; mup, a mouse; and hup, an house.

19. Many sentences, in every Angle-Saxon composition, may be transformed into modern English by attending to the preceding remarks. The following ex-

amples will sufficiently illustrate this fact.

Ic cop rylle nipe beboo. par ze lurion cop berpy-

nan rpa ic eop lurobe:

Be pam onchapad ealle menn pat ze rynt mine leopning-enihtar. zyr ze habbad lure eop betpynan:

John xiii. 34 & 35.

Luriad eoppe rynd. and dod pel ham he eop yrel bod, and gebiodad ron eoppe ehrenar and tælendum eop: Matt. v. 44.

In modern orthography these sentences would be:

I to you sell (give) a new bidden (commandment), that ye love between you so I you loved.

By that know all men that ye are my learning knights,

if ye have love between you.

Love your fiend (enemy), and do well to them that to you evil do, and bid (pray) for your haters (your tale-tellers).

<sup>\*</sup> See the very pertinent remarks by the judicious and learned editor of the recent edition of Warton's History of English Poetry, in the Editor's Preface, page (115), and Dissertation I, page cir.

# A Praris

ON

# THE ANGLO-SAXON GRAMMAR.

1. On anginne zerceop Loo heorenan, and eopban: Gen. i. 1.

2. God cpæp pa. Gepeoppe leoht. and leoht peaps gepopht: Gen. i. 3.

3. Calle ha hing de ge pyllen h men eop don. dod ge him h rylre. h 1. In beginning, God created heaven and earth.

2. God saith then, Be light: and light was made.

3. All the things that ye will that men do to you, do ye to them the same;

2. Lpæb, v. indic. ind. 3. s. from cpæhan, to say; see Etym. 74.—Da then, adv.—Hepeophe, v. sub. 3. s. from zepeophan, to be; perf. zepeaph; part. zepophen; see Etym. 86.—Peaph, v. irr. indic. perf. 3. s. from peophan, to be, &c.; see Etym. 86.—Lepophu,

perf. part. from pipcan to work; see Etym 92.

3. Calle, defin. ac. pl. neuter, to agree with ping; Synt. 14: from eall; Etym. 47.—Da, defin. ac. pl. neut.; Etym. 45.—Ding, n. 1. neut. ac. governed by the verb boo; Synt. 35.—De, rel. pron.; Synt. 16.—Pyllen, v. irr. indic. ind. 2. pl.; Etym. 88.—Dat, rel pron.; Synt. 16.—Oen, n. nom. pl. from man; Etym. 8.—Cop, pers. pron. d. pl. from pu; Etym. 36.—Don, v. irr. sub. 3. pl.; Etym. 92, in list of irregular verbs.—Doo, v. irr. imp. 2. pl.—He, pers. pron. nom. to the verb boo; Etym. 36.—Dim, pers. pron. d. pl. Etym. 37.—Dat, defin.; see Etym. 45.—Sylge; see Etym. 43.—Dat, rel. pron.

<sup>1.</sup> On, preposition.—Anginne, noun 1st declension, governed by prep. on; see Syntax 39.—Legreepp, verb irr. indic. perf. 3. s. from zegreeppan to create; of ze and grippan, perf. greep or zegreepp, created; see Etymology 92, in list of irregular verbs.—Irob, -eg, n. 1. masculine, nom. sing. to the verb zegreep.—Deopenan, n. 2. ac. governed by zegreep; Synt. 35, from heopen, -an.—And, conj.—Coppan, n. 2. f. ac. from eoppa, -an, earth.

roblice æ. and piterrzena bebod: Matt. vii. 12.

- 4. Lif ze roblice ne ropzyrab mannum.ne eopen Fæben ne ropzyrb eop eopne rynna: Matt. vi. 15.
- 5. God lupode middaneand ppa p he realde hyp an-cennedan Sunu. pnan ne poppunde pe on hyne zelyps. ac hæbbe p ece lip: John iii. 16.
- 6. Ic eop rylle nipe beboo. If ze lurion eop berpynan rpa ic eoplurooe.

which is truly (the) law, and (the) command of prophets.

4. If ye truly forgive not men, neither will your Father forgive you your sins.

- 5. God loved the world so that he gave his only begotten Son, that no one should perish who on him believeth, but should have eternal life.
- 6. I to you give a new commandment, that ye love one another (between you), as I have loved you.

<sup>-</sup>II, v. neut. indic. ind. 3. s. Etym. 86.—Soblice, adv.—Æ, a law, n. indecl. f.—Vicezena, n. 2. g. pl. governed by beboo; Synt 16. from piceza; Etym. 22.—Beboo, n. 1. nom. s. f.
4. Iir, conj.—Ne, adv.—Fopzyrav, v. irr. indic. ind. 3. s. See list

Inf, conj.—Ne, adv.—Foρgýra, v. irr. indic. ind. 3. s. See list of irr. v. Etym. 92.—Wannum, for mennum, see Etym. 24. n. 1. m. d. pl. from man, governed by ropgýra, Synt. 33.—Copep, adj. pron. Etym. 41.—Fædep, n. 2. m. nom. s. to the verb ropgýra.—Sýnna, n. 3. n. ac. pl. from rýn, see Etym. 24, governed by ropgýra, Synt. 34.

Lupobe, v. indic. perf. 3. s. Etym. 74.— (Diddan-eapo, n. 1. ac. governed by lupode; Synt. 34.—Spa, adv.—Dat; Etym. 45<sup>h</sup>.—Sealde, v. irr. indic. perf. 3. s. from pellan to give; Etym. 92.—Dyp, pers. pron. g. Etym. 37.—An-cennedan, adj. ac. s. to agree with runu, Synt. 14, from an-cenned with the emphatic a; Etym. 29.—Sunu, n. 3. ac. s. Etym. 23.—Nan, no one; adv. from n contracted from ne not, and an one, as n-one in the present English, from no-one, n-ever, from not ever, and the Latin n-ullus from ne-ullus.—Fop-puple, v. sub. ind. 3. s. from poppuplan or popyphan, to perish.—Dyne, pron. ac. s. Etym. 37.—Helype, v. indic. ind. 3. s. from gelypan, to believe; perf. zelypde; part. zelyped: Etym. 73 and 74.—Dæbbe, v. sub. 3. s. Etym. 87.

<sup>6.</sup> Lurion, v. sub. ind. 2. pl. Etym. 74.—Berpynan, prep.

- 7. Be pam on cnapad ealle menn p ze rynt mine leonning-cnihtar. zyr ze habbad lure eop betpynan: John xiii. 34 & 35.
- 8. Luriad eoppe rynd. and ooh pel ham he eop yrel dod, and zebiddad ron eoppe ehrenar and tælendum eop.

 Đæt ze rin eopper Fæðen beann. he on heoronum yr. Matt.v.44,45.

- 10. Đa cpæð re Dæleno. Fæðen. rongyr him. ronþam hig nýton hpæt hig boð: Luke xxiii. 34.
- 11. Ne behuppon læcer þa de hale rýnt. ac þa de unhælde habbad:
- 12. Ne com ic pihrpire clypian. ac rynrulle on oæobore: Luke v. 31 & 32.

- 7. By that all men shall know, that ye are my disciples, (learning-knights, children, or followers) if ye have love among you.
- 8. Love your enemy, and do well to those who do evil to you, and pray for your persecutors and your calumniators.
- 9. That ye may be your Fathers' children, who is in heaven.
- 10. Then said the Healer, "Father, forgive them, because they know not what they do."
- 11. They need not a physician who are whole, but they that have infirmity.
- 12. I am not come to call (the) righteous, but sinful to repentance.

<sup>7.</sup> Oncnapat, v. indic. ind. 3. pl. from oncnapan; Etym. 74.—Calle, defin.nom. pl. m.—Synt, v. irr. 2. pl. Etym. 86.—Dabbat, v. irr. indic. ind. 2. pl. Etym. 87°.

<sup>8.</sup> Lupiao, v. imp. 2. pl. Etym. 74.—Doo, v. irr. imp. 2. pl. Etym. 92.
—Dam, defin. d. pl. Etym. 45; governed by ooo; Synt. 33.—Cheepay, n. 1. ac. pl. governed by pop; Synt. 111.—Tælendum, n. d. pl. from imp. part. tælende, by omitting the final e, as hælande saving, Dæland the Saviour.

<sup>9.</sup> Sin for rýn, v. irr. sub. 2. pl. Etym. 86.—Copper for eopener, pron. g. s. Etym. 41.

<sup>11.</sup> Behuppon, v. indic. per. 3. pl. list of irregular verbs in heappan to have need.—Læcer, n. 1. g. s. from læce a leech; governed by behuppon; Synt. 32.

<sup>12.</sup> Synrulle, adj. nom. pl. m. to agree with men understood.

13. Soblice ic recze eop. Buton eopen nihtpirnyr mane ry honne hæna pnitena and rundon-halzena. ne za ze on heoronan nice: Matt. v. 20.

14. Sooic pe recze. bucon hpa beo eonipan zecenneo. ne mæz he zereon Looer pice: John iii. 3.

- 15. Soblice ic recze eop. buton ze beon zecyppebe and zepopbene rpa rpa lytlinzar. ne za ze on heorona pice: Matt. xviii. 3.
- 16. Fpam hypa pærtmun ze hi undenzýtað: Epyrthu zadenað man pin-benian or honnum. oð eric-æppla or hynn-cinnum:
- 17. Spa ælc zóð thýp byndzóde pærtmar. and

13. Truly, I tell you, except your righteousness be more than (that) of the writers and pharisees, ye cannot go into heaven's kingdom.

14. Truly, I tell thee, except who is born again, he cannot see God's king-

dom.

15. Truly, I tell you, except ye be converted, and become as infants, ye cannot go into heaven's kingdom.

16. From their fruit ye shall know them. Gathereth man grapes (wineberries) of thorns, or figs (fig-apples) of thistles (thorn kind)?

17. So every good tree beareth good fruit, and

14. Dpa, rel. pron. Etym. 48.—Beo, v. indic. ind. 3. s. Etym. 86. Note 5.—Ozz, v. irr. indic. ind. 3. s. Etym. 88.—Legeon, v. inf.

after mæz; Synt. 36.

16. Di, pron. ac. pl. Etym. 37, governed by the verb under zýtaď; Synt. 34.—Lpýrchu, adv. denotes merely a question.—Pin-bepian, n. 2. ac. from pin-bepia.—Dýpn-cinnum, n. 1. d. pl. from þýpn a thorn, and cýnn a kind.

17. Τρύρ οτ τρύο, n. 1. m. or f. nom. s.—Frode, adj. ac. pl. to agree with pæremar; Synt. 14.

<sup>13.</sup> Wape, adj. comp. Etym. 30.—Ppitepa, n. 1. g. pl.—Sundophalgena, g. pl. from rundophalgan the pharisees; so called from runden sunder, separated, and halgian to hallow.—La, v. irr. sub. 2. pl. see list of irregular verbs, Etym. 92.

<sup>15.</sup> Lecyppede, part. perf. nom. pl. m. to agree with men understood, from zecyppan; perf. zecypde; perf. part. zecypped, declined like zoo; Etym. 26 and 65.—Lepopdene, perf. part. nom. pl. m. Etym. 26, 65, and 86.

ælcyreltnypbynydele

pærcmar:

18. Ne mæg f zóde t neop beopan y rele pærtmar. ne f y rele t neop zóde pærtmar: Matt. vii. 16—18.

19. Azyrað þam Earene þa þing þe þær Earener rýnt. J Gode þa þing þe Goder rýnt: Lukexx. 25.

20. Ne pyncead ærten pam mete pe roppynd. ac ærten pam pe punhpunad on ece lir: John vi. 27.

21. Dpæt rpemad men beah he ealne middaneapo zertnýne. J do hyr raple roppýpo.

22. Oöbe hpylc zeppyxl rylb re man ron hyr raple: Mark viii. 36, 37.

23. Seo tio cymo f ealle gehynao hyr rterne. be on bynzenum rynt.

every evil tree beareth evil fruit.

18. The good tree cannot bear evil fruit, nor the evil tree good fruit.

- 19. Give to Cæsar the things that Cæsar's are, and to God the things that God's are.
- 20. Labour not after that meat which perishes, but after that which continueth unto eternal life.
- 21. What will (it) profit man, though he all the world may gain, and do to his soul destruction?
- 22. Or what exchange shall man give for his soul?
- 23. The time cometh that all shall hear his voice that are in tombs.

20. Duphpunas, v. indic. ind. 3. s. from puph and punian to dwell, remain, &c.

22. Dpylc, rel. pron. Etym. 49.—Syld, v. indic. ind. Etym. 74; from ryllan to give.

23. Sterne, n. 1. ac. from reern, reern, or reeren a voice.

<sup>18.</sup> Ozz, v. irr. indic. ind. 3. s. Etym. 88, and agrees with its nom. tpeop.

—Dzet, defin. nom. s. f. Etym. 45, Note —Beopan or bzpan, v. inf.
after the verb mz; Etym. Note\*, page 46. Synt. 36.

<sup>19.</sup> Azýrav, v. imp. 2. pl.—Ľarene, n. 1. d. s. governed by azýrav; Synt. 33.—Đing, n. 1. ac. pl. governed by azýrav; Synt. 34.—Synt, for rine, v. irr. indic. ind. 3. pl. Etym. 86,

<sup>21.</sup> bpæt, rel. pron. nom. s. n. Etym. 48.—Wen for man.—Deah, conj.—Herchyne, v. sub. ind. 3. s. from ze-rhynan.—Do, v. irr. sub. ind. 3. s. Etym. 92, list of irregular verbs, bon.

24. And ha de zód pophton. rapad on lirer æpyrte. and ha de yrel dydon. on domer æpyrte: John v. 28 & 29.

24. And those who have wrought good shall go in resurrection of life, and those who have done evil in resurrection of doom.

24. Pophton, v. indic. perf. 3. pl. from pipcan; Etym. 92.—Æpyrte, n. 1. d. s. from apirt or apyrt resurrection.

THE END.

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